DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 249 221 SP 025 349

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TITLE Counseling Skills for Classroom Teachers.
INSTITUTION Minnesota Univ., Minneapolis. National Support Systems Project.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (ED), Washington, DC. Div. of Personnel Preparation.
PUB DATE Mar 82
GRANT OEG007902045
NOTE 108p.; For other modules in this series, see ED 238 844 and SP 025 332-354. For the genesis of these modules, see ED 186 399. Reviewed by Donald A. Briggs and Carolyn Del Polito.
PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Counseling Effectiveness; *Counseling Techniques; Empathy; Higher Education; Learning Modules; Preservice Teacher Education; Self Disclosure (Individuals); *Teacher Behavior; *Teacher Education Curriculum; *Teacher Educators; *Teacher Guidance; *Teacher Student Relationship
IDENTIFIERS Education for All Handicapped Children Act

ABSTRACT

This module (part of a series of 24 modules) is on counseling skills for classroom teachers. The genesis of these materials is in the 10 "clusters of capabilities," outlined in the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education." These clusters form the proposed core of professional knowledge needed by teachers in the future. The module is to be used by teacher educators to reexamine and enhance their current practice in preparing classroom teachers to work competently and comfortably with children who have a wide range of individual needs. The module includes objectives, scales for assessing the degree to which the identified knowledge and practices are prevalent in an existing teacher education program, and self-assessment test items. Bibliographic references and articles on developing teachers' competence in communicating with, and counseling, students are included. (JD)

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ED249221

COUNSELING SKILLS
FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS

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March 1982

SP 025 349

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Extending the Challenge:

Working Toward a Common Body of Practice for Teachers

Concerned educators have always wrestled with issues of excellence and professional development. It is argued, in the paper "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education,"* that the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 provides the necessary impetus for a concerted reexamination of teacher education. Further, it is argued that this reexamination should enhance the process of establishing a body of knowledge common to the members of the teaching profession. The paper continues, then by outlining clusters of capabilities that may be included in the common body of knowledge. These clusters of capabilities provide the basis for the following materials.

The materials are oriented toward assessment and development. First, the various components, rating scales, self-assessments, sets of objectives, and respective rationale and knowledge bases are designed to enable teacher educators to assess current practice relative to the knowledge, skills, and commitments outlined in the aforementioned paper. The assessment is conducted not necessarily to determine the worthiness of a program or practice, but rather to reexamine current practice in order to articulate essential common elements of teacher education. In effect, then, the "challenge" paper and the ensuing materials incite further discussion regarding a common body of practice for teachers.

Secondly and closely aligned to assessment is the developmental perspective offered by these materials. The assessment process allows the user to view current practice on a developmental continuum. Therefore, desired or more appropriate practice is readily identifiable. On another, perhaps more important dimension, the "challenge" paper and these materials focus discussion on pre-service teacher education. In making decisions regarding a common body of practice it is essential that specific knowledge, skill and commitment be acquired at the preservice level. It is also essential that other additional specific knowledge, skill, and commitment be acquired as a teacher is inducted into the profession and matures with years of experience. Differentiating among these levels of professional development is paramount. These materials can be used in forums in which focused discussion will explicate better the necessary elements of preservice teacher education. This explication will then allow more productive discourse on the necessary capabilities of beginning teachers and the necessary capabilities of experienced teachers.

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*Published by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., 1980 ($5.50).

In brief, this work is an effort to capitalize on the creative ferment of the teaching profession in striving toward excellence and professional development. The work is to be viewed as evolutionary and formative. Contributions from our colleagues are heartily welcomed.

Counseling Skills for Teachers

This paper presents one module in a series of resource materials which are designed for use by teacher educators. The genesis of these materials is in the ten "clusters of capabilities," outlined in the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education," which formed the proposed core of professional knowledge needed by professional teachers who will practice in the world of tomorrow. The resource materials are to be used by teacher educators to reexamine and enhance their current practice in preparing classroom teachers to work competently and comfortably with children who have a wide range of individual needs. Each module provides further elaboration of a specified "cluster of capabilities" - in this case, counseling skills for teachers.

The reader may note that the format of this module deviates from that of other modules in this series. Considerably less attention is devoted to a discussion of the knowledge base of the subject matter with correspondingly greater attention devoted to one particular method of teaching counseling skills to teachers. This change in format was considered beneficial to better develop what might otherwise remain a somewhat abstract idea. Some will argue that the counseling skills outlined in this module are not the ones, or are not the only ones, that they attempt to teach teachers. With these colleagues we feel a kinship in believing that teachers are among childrens' most influential counselors and should have basic skills in fulfilling that role. That there is no one best method of counseling or of teaching counseling skills we fully acknowledge. This is a method that we have used with teachers and have evaluated. For our purposes it has worked well. However, we urge others to develop their own programs, and to view our method as a model of only one counseling curriculum.

It may seem unusual to include such a heavy emphasis on counseling skills in the "common body of practice for teachers." As the rationale hopefully makes clear, recent research on teacher effectiveness stresses the importance for teachers to focus their efforts both on the social/emotional needs as well as the academic needs of their pupils. With the advent of mainstreaming this becomes even more important. Dupont (1978) has pointed out that as previously segregated children first enter regular classrooms it is their emotional needs which are paramount. Such children may not overtly broadcast their needs for personal support or their anxieties, especially during the transition phases. The well-known "rooting" response of many mainstreamed exceptional children indicates that they expend much time and effort attempting to find cues as to expectations in the regular classroom. This is but one example of the importance of being able to identify with accuracy the emotions of children and then to help them verbalize their thoughts and feelings. Generally regular classroom teachers respond only infrequently to pupils' emotions. Such a lack of responsiveness reduces the likelihood of social or academic learning for many pupils, including those who have been mainstreamed. While the readmission of many students with serious academic and social problems to regular school settings reinforces the need for teachers to be capable counselors, the authors see little evidence that the skills required to counsel "handicapped" students are any different than those needed to counsel "normal" students.

This module outlines one program which has been developed and successfully used to teach teachers some basic skills in responding to the emotional needs of pupils. The underlying assumption of this module is that teacher responses to students' thoughts and emotions are far too important to ignore in teacher education programs.

Dupont, H. Meeting the emotional-social needs of students in a mainstreamed environment. Counseling and Human Development, 1978, 10(9), 1-11.

Contents

Within this module are the following components:

Set of Objectives - The objectives focus on the teacher educator rather than as a student (preservice teacher). They identify what can be expected as a result of working through the materials. The objectives which apply to teachers are also identified. They are statements about skills, knowledge, and attitudes which should be part of the "common body of practice" of all teachers. Page vi

Rating Scales - Scales are included by which a teacher educator could, in a cursory way, assess the degree to which the knowledge and practices identified in this module are prevalent in the existing teacher-training program. The rating scales also provide a catalyst for further thinking in each area. Page xiii

Self-Assessment - Specific test items were developed to determine a user's working knowledge of the major concepts and principles in each subtopic. The self-assessment may be used as a pre-assessment to determine whether one would find it worthwhile to go through the module or as a self-check, after the materials have been worked through. The self-assessment items also can serve as examples of mastery test questions for students. Page ix

Rationale - A brief statement summarizes the rationale and empirical support for the proposed course for teaching counseling skills in teacher education programs. Page 1

Training Unit - Outlines a unit to teach counseling skills as part of a teacher education program. Proposed lessons and supporting materials are described in detail. Page 14

Bibliography - A partial bibliography of important books, articles and materials is included in Appendix G. Page 83

Articles - One article supporting the use of a curriculum such as the one outlined in this module is attached at the end of the module. Three brief articles (reproduced with permission) are included for direct use in the activities outlined in this module. These are found in Appendices B, C, and E. Page 86

Objectives for Teacher Educators

This module contains materials and strategies designed to:

1. Provide a rationale for the inclusion of counseling skills training in the curriculum of teacher education programs;
2. Prepare pre-service teachers in the skill of active listening;
3. Prepare pre-service teachers to observe and accurately identify a variety of emotions in themselves and others;
4. Prepare pre-service teachers to observe and accurately recognize nonverbal cues of themselves and others;
5. Prepare pre-service teachers to respond accurately, through paraphrasing, to the emotions expressed by others both verbally and through body language;
6. Prepare pre-service teachers to maintain a sequence of accurate responses to verbal and non-verbal feeling states in others;
7. Teach pre-service teachers techniques for constructive confrontation and "I-messages";
8. Teach pre-service teachers to track their own emotions through the use of personal journals;
9. Provide a basis for the incorporation of all these responsive teaching techniques into the behavioral repertoire of the beginning teacher.

Reasonable Objectives for Teacher Education

Students should have knowledge, practical skills and commitment to professional performance in the following areas related to the effective application of counseling skills in school settings:

1. Observing and accurately identifying emotions in students, colleagues and themselves;
2. Responding accurately to the verbal and non-verbal communications of students and colleagues;
3. Maintaining clear communication with students and colleagues through the use of techniques such as active listening and constructive confrontation; and
4. Maintaining a teaching style that is accepting of and responsive to the emotions of students; and sensitive and constructive in dealing with the personal problems expressed by students.

Rating Scale for Teacher Preparation Program

____ 1. Students receive no systematic instruction in counseling techniques.

____ 2. Students receive classroom instruction in counseling techniques, but are offered litile or no opportunity to practice these techniques.

____ 3. Students receive classroom instruction in counseling techniques and opportunities to perform these techniques in practice sessions, but they are not assessed for nor held accountable for mastery of specific skills.

____ 4. Students receive classroom instruction in counseling techniques and are formally monitored for their ability to perform these techniques in practice sessions.

____ 5. Students receive classroom instruction in counseling techniques and are formally monitored for their ability to perform these techniques in both practice sessions and while practice teaching. Additional training is provided as needed.

Self-Assessment

As a check of your familiarity with the material in this module, try the following:

1. Define Active-Listining.

2. Can you distinguish between empathy and sympathy?

3. What names do you associate with active-listening?

   ( ) Perls ( ) Skinner ( ) Rogers ( ) Piaget

4. Approximately what percent of a message unit is conveyed nonverbally?

   ( ) 10% ( ) 20% ( ) 30% ( ) 40% ( ) more than 50%

5. Read the student statements below and either respond to yourself or write a response in the space.

Compare your answers.

A. Student: I hate you!
Response: (Compare your response to that listed below.)

B. Student: The other kids are always running me down.
Response:

C. Student: I hate this subject. It stinks!
Response:

D. Student: Girls get the best of everything!
Response:

6. List some main elements of nonverbal communication.

7. What is a primary focus for "reading" another person's comfort or discomfort level?

8. Rating Response Styles. Turn to page 29 of the module. Cover up the answers in the left-hand column. Read situation (1) Boy - "I have the queerest feeling----. Then identify the answers according to Evaluative (E), Interpretive (I), Supportive (S), Probing (P), or Understanding (U). Then repeat the situation for (2) Girl, (3) 45-year-old Woman, and (4) Teacher Aide.

Answers to Self-Assessment

1. A good definition of active listening includes an accurate response to the content, the feeling, and the nonverbal segments of a message.

2. Generally, sympathy is much more superficial without really putting yourself in the other person's place. Empathy is the ability to respond to another's genuine concerns as if you were the other.

3. Rogers is considered the "father" of active listening with his client-centered technique.

4. Research indicates that more than 50% of the meaning of a message is conveyed nonverbally.

5. A. Student: I hate you!
   Possible response: I have really made you angry, haven't I?

   B. Student: The other kids are always running me down.
   Possible response: Feel kinda rejected, huh?

   C. Student: I hate this subject. It stinks!
   Possible response: You really dislike it, don't you?

   D. Student: Girls get the best of everything!
   Possible response: It really seems unfair, doesn't it?

6. Generally, this includes voice tone, body posture, facial expression, space, eye contact, hand gestures, physical contact. Each of these can be further divided -- almost endlessly (e.g., the eye, the eyebrow, the pupil, the amount of blinking, etc.).

7. The apparent discrepancy or lack of it between the verbal content of the message and the body language (unless the person is a gifted actor).

COUNSELING SKILLS FOR TEACHERS

The rationale for including counseling skills as a generic part of teacher education derives from current theory and research. The research findings to be reviewed point in two directions. One set of extensive studies identifies shortcomings implicit in most teacher-pupil interaction patterns. The second set identifies more positive patterns which deserve recognition in programs preparing teachers for the future.

The concept of the hidden curriculum came into vogue in the 1960s and is a useful framework for reflecting on the importance of counseling and communication skills for teachers. The formal aspects of schooling such as pupil-teacher ratios, books, buildings, and curriculum guides were found to be far less significant than classroom and building atmospheres (Overly, 1970), or the more informal aspects. The hidden or informal agenda of schooling was found to consist of psychological dimensions such as teacher expectations, the patterns of adult-pupil relationships, the actual verbal and nonverbal interactions between teachers and pupils in classrooms. These patterns could either promote or deter pupil development. Too often these interactions were detrimental, as noted in the next section. Ironically, types of patterns found to be so detrimental by Overly have actually existed for over seventy years.

Common Classroom Interaction Patterns, 1893-1980

In the late nineteenth century, a visitor to the public schools of the day concluded that most of the activity in classrooms consisted of what he called a game of recitation. The pupils and teacher seemed to follow a systematic question and answer exercise. The teacher would ask a series of short factual questions with the rapidity of a machine gunner - "Now class, pay attention.... Tell me, who discovered America? ______, What year? ______, How many ships were there? ______, What were their names? ______, How long was the voyage? ______, etc."

Each question was followed by a brief pause and then the students with hands raised were called on, again with the speed of light until one student said the correct answer. At this point the teacher would fire the next question and skip around the class calling on pupils with hands raised appropriately until the next right answer was called out. The observer in the nineteen-century classroom noted that the interaction between teacher and pupil seemed exclusively mechanical. The process seemed to emphasize rote learning, repeating book facts memorized from the teacher and the textbook. Inquiry was unknown. "In several instances when a pupil stopped for a moment's reflection, the teacher remarked abruptly, 'Don't stop to think, but tell me what you know.'" (Rice, 1893)

An English educator in 1908 noted the "time-honoured" tradition in American classrooms of question-answer recitation in distinct contrast to the lecture method employed on the continent of Europe. A systematic study of classroom interaction further substantiated the question-answer method as the predominant approach to teaching in this country. Using stenographic notes of actual classroom discussions (this was in the days before tape recorders and other mechanical means of recording teacher-pupil classroom "talk"), a researcher found that over 80% of all classroom talk consisted of asking and answering brief fact questions -- questions that called for a good rote memory and an ability to phrase the answer in the terms that the teacher used. The rate of questioning was between one to four questions per minute -- thus much like today's popular T.V. quiz games in that each pupil (or contestant) is given a few seconds to come up with the right answer. If he/she doesn't have the answer at the tip of his/her tongue, he/she loses his/her turn and the teacher (or master of ceremonies) moves on to the next pupil. The researcher noted that it might be unimportant if in 1912 she found one teacher who fired questions at pupils in staccato-like fashion at pupils, however: "The fact that one hundred different classrooms reveal the same methods in vogue is quite a different matter. The fact that one teacher attempts to realize his educational aims through the process of 'hearing' the textbook day after day, is unfortunate but pardonable; that history, science, mathematics, foreign language and English teachers, collectively are following in the same groove, is a matter for theorists and practitioners to reckon with." (Stevens, 1912)

In the 1960's, fully one-half century after the above observations, educational researchers studying the classroom interactions between teachers and pupils made the following comments. (1) The teachers tend to do about 70% of all the talking in the classroom. (2) Most of this talk is in the form of asking questions. (3) Between 80% and 88% of all teacher questions call for rote memory responses by the pupils. (4) The teachers generally ask questions on a cycle of about two per minute. (5) Pupil talk was almost exclusively a short response to the teacher's question. (Inquiring or suggesting other reasons or questions by pupils was virtually non-existent (Beccack, 1966).

A recent study by Goodlad (1979) yielded a similar litany of difficulties. As an exemplar his national study focused on the secondary school English/language arts curriculum. Classroom observations found that the predominant mode of instruction was almost totally traditional - a text book, a work-sheet, a rote recitation. In over one-half of all classrooms the pupils were never exposed to as much as one single different teaching model. Also and even more distressing was his finding that the high school teachers' use of praise, encouragement, correction with guidance dropped 50% when compared to elementary and became predominantly negative (Goodlad, 1979).

The Negative Impact of Schooling

Given this rather generic set of teaching behaviors it is small wonder that studies on the psychological impact on pupils tend to be quite negative -- at both the elementary and secondary levels.

An extensive study by Minuchin and her associates (1969) documented the extent to which children receive a negative psychological education in elementary school. Their research demonstrated a systematic pattern of negative attitudes and low expectations being transmitted to children from low social and economic backgrounds. Atmospheres for learning and teacher expectations became lower the longer the pupils were in school. Fifth graders were seen as less capable and competent than second graders in the same school. The same researchers also found that such children attained not only lower academic achievement but negative self-concepts as learners as well. The longer children had been in school, the lower their self-confidence in problem-solving situations. Lest we conclude that such negative outcomes are exclusive to economically poor schools, other studies have shown similar effects as a general phenomenon. Jackson (1968) showed the extent to which elementary teachers became traffic managers and stage directors rather than educators. Their manipulation of crowds, praise, and power have the educational impact of producing compliance, passivity, and reduced personal intimacy.

Studies also have shown that elementary-age children learn to think about human behavior in judgmental ways as a result of formal schooling (Stiles, 1950). Both teachers and children increasingly learn arbitrary and judgmental orientations toward human behavior during the school experience (Ojemann, 1958; Ojemann & Snider, 1964). Others, such as Suchman (1961), have suggested that children in elementary schools become less autonomous in learning the longer they remain in school.

Similar negative effects have been documented at the secondary level. The classic Coleman study, The Adolescent Society (1961), indicated that high school seniors were less generally interested in learning than ninth-grade pupils. Sprinthall and Mosher (1971) found that middle-class high schools not only teach extrinsic values (achievement rather than inquiry), but also induce substantial negative motivation and smoldering resentment toward learning as well.

Also, and even more unfortunately, as classroom teaching becomes more complex through desegregation and mainstreaming, the interaction problems seemingly get worse. For example, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) in the classic self-fulfilling prophecy study found teachers' manifested attitudes toward specific children tended to be related to their subsequent achievement. Brophy and Good (1974) found that the negative attitudes and expectations were much worse by white teachers toward Black pupils, as well as by middle-class teachers to lower-class children. Negative interactions included significantly less eye-contact, significantly less positive cueing, less feedback, and more criticism. For pupils identified as "slow learners" that pattern was equally negative, e.g. less "wait" time, infrequent follow-up and inappropriate rewards such as praising failure. A more recent study by McDermott and Aron (1978) found that classroom teachers literally and figuratively ignored a reading group of newly mainstreamed pupils or actually interfered with their own attempts to work in the small group.

Schooling: What is, and what might be

On the other hand, research and theory also can point out that what is, does not have to be. In other words there are studies which document positive effects as well as serve as indicators of the requisite teaching skills. A very significant study by Aspey and Roebuck (1977) indicated most clearly that both goals of improved academic skills and improved self-concepts can result from effective teaching. This means that the old dicotomy between cognitive and affective (so unfortunately reified by Bloom I and Bloom II) was artificial. An effective teacher promotes both the cognitive and affective simultaneously. It is probably not appropriate to perceive of any separation between the mind of a pupil and the heart. The Aspey-Roebuck work demonstrated that pupil "gain" occurred both in academic content and in improved self-concept. The teaching skills found related to these gains were:

1) The use of the indirect modes on Flanders Interaction Analysis System -- 1, 2, 3, & 4, in balance with direct modes.

2) Accuarately "reading" pupil emotions -- that is, to recognize verbal and non-verbal pupil cues as to their emotional states.

3) Responding with genuine empathy to pupil emotions -- sometimes called "accurate empathy."

Such teaching procedures in regular classrooms were shown to drastically alter the hidden agenda -- the classroom atmosphere. Teacher reports as well as objective evaluations of pupils supported the relationships established between these teacher responses and positive learning outcomes. These findings were most similar to studies done by Flanders (1975) himself. Quite uniquely he measured the actual physiological effect of traditional versus indirect-responsiveness teaching. Under traditional methods, i.e., an exclusively direct mode, pupils' heart rate and sweat-rate increased, their attitudes toward learning became more negative, their self-concept as learner declined, their self-directed learning declined, and their academic achievement declined. There was a dramatic reversal of intellectual and affective effects under conditions of responsive-empathic teaching, namely the ability to employ the three general competencies noted above.

It is important to point out that these findings have been summarized by Professor Gage from Stanford (1978). Employing a meta-analysis he found very strong support in 13 of 16 studies. When teachers employed a combination of direct and indirect (called responsive techniques in this module) teaching methods, the pupils "gained" both academically and in self-concepts. He concluded that the balance of indirect and direct methods was a causal factor in stimulating pupil growth. It is most important to underscore the concept of balance. Too often these findings are reported as indicating that an exclusive reliance on indirect teaching is the single best method. This is immediately followed by claims that direct methods also work. What is missed in these charges and counter charges is the main point. Effective teaching involves the ability to use both common methods, direct and indirect. However, the classroom interaction studies mentioned earlier clearly indicate that most of the time the teaching method is direct (two-thirds of classroom interactions are direct teacher comments). Thus to improve general teaching effectiveness, measured by pupil gain in intellectual and emotional development, it seems important to provide teachers with some basic training in indirect methods.

David Hunt's (1974) voluminous research provides further cross-validation for the need for responsive teaching skills. His many studies indicate quite clearly that pupil gain depends upon the ability of the teacher to "read" and "flex" with the pupils. Such a responsive teacher can then adjust the learning activities to the developmental level of the pupils. In his terms this means that the teacher can be direct, highly structured, and use concrete rewards for pupils who may need that type of an environment. On the other hand the same teacher, based on accurate reading of pupil needs, could provide the opposite for other pupils such as indirect methods, low structure, and intrinsic rewards. The key element in such choice by the teacher is the ability to accurately "read" where the pupil is currently functioning both intellectually and emotionally. Unfortunately in the latter category, responding to the legitimate emotional needs of pupils in the classroom, is the simple area of teaching which is the lowest in response rate. Amidon and Flanders (1967) found that regular classroom teachers accurately responded to pupil feelings on the average of once per one-thousand classroom interactions. When asked why they maintained the category at all, since it was so rarely used, they answered, "This category is maintained because of the significance of such behavior when it does occur" (1967, p. 138).

The studies mentioned above establish most clearly that by altering the teaching methods most commonly employed in schools both cognitive and affective gains can be achieved. Many other studies which will not be reported here have essentially come to similar conclusions. If teachers can employ a balance of direct and indirect methods of instruction in their classrooms and if they can learn to identify and respond to the emotions and thoughts of their pupils, academic and psychological gains will result. The most important aspect of all this is the idea of a ratio. Given much of the recent research which suggests that direct instruction in the Barak Rosenshine sense is a preferred mode, it may appear that our recommendations here are in conflict. Instead it is important to remember that a flexible teacher can vary the teaching process using effective direct modes in a blend with effective indirect or inquiry modes. The problem, as we have pointed out, is that too often teacher training programs do not provide sufficient emphasis or indirect teaching skills, especially in the area of responding accurately to the thoughts and emotions of students. That element as Dupont (1978) has indicated is a most critical element, especially for teaching strategies focused on the needs of mainstreamed children.

This module focuses on the identification and response patterns to emotions in pupils. The communication skills which are central to the process of counseling become the methods of choice for this dimension of teaching. Our own studies have shown that both pre-service and in-service teachers can learn and employ these methods in their daily instruction (Glassberg & Sprinthall, 1980; Hurt & Sprinthall, 1976; Oja & Sprinthall, 1978). Thus what we recommend here is based on significant evidence that such learning can be transmitted to teachers and that pupils ultimately benefit.

There has been extremely significant parallel work with young children such as Rick Heber's Milwaukee study (1972) and an adoption study by Scarr and Weinberg (1975). These show that children grow and develop in an "abundant and facilitating" humane environment, namely an environment where legitimate intellectual and emotional needs are best met simultaneously. Similarly, studies at the college level by Chickering (1969) indicate the same is true even at the level of higher education (something we teacher educators must remember). If adults wish to stimulate the development which is intrinsic to humans, then the learning environment should include the recognition of both the intellectual and the affective domains. Robert White (1959) has shown that all children and adolescents have an in-born need to grow, a basic competence motivation. The instructional problem is to learn to respond to that need. Ultimately that is the goal of this module. If pre-service teachers learn to employ counseling skills as part of classroom teaching it will increase the likelihood that all pupils will gain. Again we note that this module can outline only one method of teaching some skills that research clearly suggests should be a part of all teacher education programs. It is not possible to outline a best method of teaching a best set of skills for teachers in responding to students' emotional needs. This is simply one method.

The Instructional Model of the Module

This module is based on an assumption that learners need both "real" experience and the opportunity to reflect upon the experience. This is sometimes referred to as an action-reflection method. If the goal of an instructional unit is to increase complexity of both thought and action of the learner, then such an objective can be attained through a program which has both elements -- doing and thinking -- in concert. Since the goal of the unit is to increase a student teacher's ability to identify and respond to emotions, the module has a heavy emphasis on actual experience and guided peer practice. In an overly simplified sense the unit is a combined seminar and practicum. The amount of lecturing is minimal. The idea is to have the student teachers "do" counseling with each other so that they have the acutal experience of the process. Further, such real experience reduces both the mystique and secrecy often attached to counseling. The module comes from a quite different assumption -- that such psychological skills can be very safely "given away" to other professionals such as teachers. In fact research has shown that secondary pupils and college students in general can usefully learn these techniques as a means of improving their own level of psychological maturity (Sprinthall, 1980).

One further point. If you are unfamiliar and/or uncomfortable with the format of teaching counseling skills then we would strongly recommend that you consider a team-taught program with colleagues from a counselor education, counseling psychology or speech communication program, or with a staff person from the counseling center. The only thing one needs to be sure of is that the colleague is comfortable with the idea of giving the skills away. Most counselors are in the forefront of this outreach approach, i.e. to train/educate lay persons, paraprofessionals, and colleagues from other fields in counseling methods. There are, however, some in the field who very much oppose these concepts as too radical and too dangerous (in spite of the research evidence to the contrary). This means you will have to sound out colleagues first before appearing in the first class meeting as a team.

One final point on teaching method. We have roughly followed the Bruce Joyce (1978) framework for instruction. Generally the sequence is for the teachers to (1) demonstrate or model a technique -- all the while describing the nuances; (2) to present aspects of the technique in relatively small pieces -- micro-units; (3) to have the participants practice the piece of the technique with each other; (4) then recycle to the point of competence; and (5) generalize or put together the micro-units into a whole or a gestalt, with monitoring and feedback at each point in the cycle. This is, as you may have recognized, an adaptation of the original microteaching method and together with the recommended reflections seem to have provided the program with an adequate balance of experience and thought.

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Phase One: Building Positive Interpersonal Relationships Within the Training Group

This phase of the module focuses on establishing group trust and cohesion, developing a norm of democratic classroom leadership and participation, and modeling and encouraging active listening and appropriate self-disclosure.

1. Introducing the Module

Before conducting activity one, the instructor will want to tell the students (or perhaps even better, write out for students) what the course is all about, what it is designed to teach them, what kinds of activities the class will be partaking in, what type of grading system will be employed, and what the instructor's expectations are. The following questions and reponses are designed to help the instructor convey the information to the students. Whatever type of counseling skills course is eventually decided upon, thinking through questions such as these should greatly aid in its development.

A. "What will I learn?"

Students in this course will learn to be better communicators and helpers with others and self; and in the process, learn more about the dimensions of human behavior and thought. Students will be trained in the skill of active listening, a counseling technique developed by Carl Rogers, a noted psychologist.

B. "What kinds of activities will students be involved in?"

Students in this class will be asked to take part in role play counseling, process observing, critiquing groups, discussions in seminars, watching counseling films, peer counseling, simulation exercises and producing audio/video tapes on counseling sessions. Another activitiy to which is attached special importance is the student journal. Each student will be asked to buy a small notebook which is to be devoted to writing about a student's experience throughout the course. This will provide students and instructors an additional channel to interact through and check out how well the course is going.

A journal is a systematic and analytical record of a person's reflections on experiences. Students will be given time near the end of each class session to write their thoughts and feelings during the class session. (For more details see Appendix A.)

C. "What kind of grading system is there for the course?"

Note: Many past counseling courses have used a credit/no credit system. Of course, the type of system employed will depend on the college's policy on grading.

D. "What are the criteria for grading?"

Students are required to complete the following items in order to receive a credit.

1. Written critiques on articles handed out in class on counseling techniques and philosophies.

2. Written critiques of the movies shown in class.

3. The production of audio and/or video tapes. One tape as a helper and another as a focus person or helpee.

4. Participation in peer counseling groups as a helper and focus person.

E. "What are the rules and regulations of the classroom?"

Note: The reponse to this question is dependent on the college's policies and enforcements and the instructor's interpretations. In any case, students should be knowledgeable of the rules and the consequences of breaking them. Areas that should be clarified are:

1. Attendance.

2. Tardiness.

3. Preparation -- materials -- equipment.

4. Outside assignments.

2. Activity 1: Introductions

Rationale: The first activity is designed to help foster the development of openness among its participants. Its importance as a climate setter cannot be overstated.

Activity Description:

A variety of introduction approaches have been tried, but generally the most productive one has been to have the students gather in one large circle and to ask them to spend five to ten minutes introducing themselves. They are asked to give their names and mention a significant learning experience they have had in the past month or so.

At the conclusion of the exercise students are asked to describe their thoughts and feelings as they introduced themselves by writing in their journals. (See materials sectin for student question guide.)

Objectives:

1. To help students to feel more relaxed with other class members as a result of the exercise and as indicated by instructor's observations and student's response to journal questions.

2. To encourage students to take a more active role in asking questions and clarifying statements near midpoint in the activity (as observed by the instructor).

3. To encourage students to begin to disclose the self in group settings (as indicated by responses to journal questions).

4. To encourage students to perceive the instructor and other instructional staff as colleagues and not as their constant superiors as indicated by student journal responses.

Instructor Role:

1. The instructor is to help facilitate trust by modeling openness when (s)he does introduction.

2. The instructor is to serve as a model listener and clarifier in responding to students' introductions.

3. The instructor is to focus on identifying and checking out feelings of students during introductions.

Comments:

1. Some students are generally nervous and self-conscious about talking about themselves. Some may try to avoid having to introduce themselves. The instructor may want to assist these students in opening up by asking them "How does it feel to have to introduce yourself?" and then ask them about special hobbies or interests.

2. During the introductions there are often awkward pauses during and between individual introductions. The instructor should try to diminish these pauses if they seem to be very lengthy and painful to the individual and/or group, otherwise let them happen, since it will help encourage students to talk and ask questions of the one introducing himself.

3. At first, the instructor may find him/herself the only one asking questions and clarifying student statements; however, as the introductions progress some students will join in with the instructor to ask fellow students about themselves. The instructor should reduce the number of responses (s)he makes as the students pick up the interaction.

4. Sometimes there are several students in a class who enjoy talking and especially about themselves. To make sure these students don't dominate the activity the instructor may want to gently remind the class that "five minutes have been allotted for each introduction and we should be moving onward."

Alternative Introduction Models

A. Triads:

Students are randomly grouped into triads and each student is asked to complete a series of sentence stems in ten minutes. Students are encouraged to talk with their triad partners in completing this task. Having finished the stems, each student in the triad is asked to introduce a fellow triad member to the entire class. Class members are encouraged to ask questions of the person being introduced. In this manner students are eased into talking about themselves. (See student material for sentence stems.)

B. Chain:
Students and the instructor(s) are seated in one large circle. They are asked to introduce the person on their left. Ten minutes is allocated for gathering information -- name, age, interests, plans, and recent experiences. Class members are encouraged to ask questions to the one being introduced. In using this model students are eased into sharing thoughts and feelings they may have.

C. Guess who:
This format should only be used if the instructor and students already have a rather high level of familiarity with one another. Participants are asked to complete five sentence stems in ten minutes. The papers are turned into the instructor without names attached and shuffled. The sheets are then distributed one to a student and read with everyone, except the creator of the sentences, attempting to identify the mystery person. Once the student has been discovered, the students are encouraged to deepen their understanding of the person through questions. (Use the same sentence stems as used in the triad exercise -- see student materials sections.)

Student Materials for Introduction

1. Describe your feeling before, during, and after you introduced yourself.

2. Did you have difficulty at times listening to others? If so, describe the situation.

3. What new ideas or information did you learn about your fellow students and teacher?

4. What new ideas or thoughts did you learn about yourself?

5. Have your impressions of the instructor changed any? If so, how?

6. Did you find yourself taking interest in what other people were talking about? Explain.

3. Activity 2: Focusing on Communications

Rationale: This activity is designed to help students look at the verbal-nonverbal components of communications, to begin to recognize their own styles of communicating and those of others.

Activity Description:

Three exercises are used to begin investigating communications: 1) Simulated cocktail party, 2) Mirroring, 3) Nonverbal language.

Exercise 1. Simulated Cocktail Party:

This activity is devised to relax students and to direct them to looking at the topic of communications.

Students are asked to participate in a simulated cocktail aprty. They are encouraged to communicate with one another in the fashion associated with such gatherings: shallow, small talk, moving quickly from person to person. After a fifteen minute "party" students are asked to gather in a large circle and the instructor is to lead a discussion on the exercise. (See materials section for question guide.)

Exercise 2. Mirroring:

The purpose of this exercise is to help students see and hear how they are perceived by others in their communications.

Students are grouped in triads and given five sentence stems which they are to complete. Next, students are to take turns communicating finished sentences to a partner in the triad who will mirror (parrot back) the verbal and nonverbal message. The third person in the triad is to process for accuracy of the mirroring. (It may be wise to instruct students not to read their sentences off the papers, but to commit them to memory for the exercise.) (See materials section for stems.)

Instructor Note: A video taped replay system can be very useful in the mirroring exercise. Most students have not had the opportunity to see themselves on tape and many probably are unaware of how they come across physically in communicating. Also, if you intend to use taping in the counseling practicum, it would be helpful to familiarize the students with the equipment and to get them used to being taped.

Exercise 3. Body language:

In engaging students in the exercise on nonverbal communications students will become more aware of cues given off by other people and themselves about how they may be feeling. Students are to form groups of ten. The facilitator explains that each student will draw a card with an emotion written on it which he/she must attempt to convey nonverbally to the others in the group. Each is encouraged to use facial expressions, body posture, eye movement, and hand gestures to help the group guess the correct feeling. (See materials section for list of feeling words in Appendix A.)

Another approach is to ask students to posture different nonverbal experiences. For example the following list has been used extensively in the Philadelphia Affective Education Program as a means of teaching nonverbals.

A. Take a posture that shows
    1. you don't care about 3 people in the room
    2. you don't want to participate
    3. you want the instructor to think you're IN when you're out
    4. you care about the 3 people in the room
    5. you intend to be first at lunch
    6. you just talked to advisor about being inattentive and you just turned over a new leaf
    7. your friend is coming to get tape recorder and you want her to disrupt class
    8. you want attention of teacher
    9. you want to sleep undisturbed
    10. you want to talk with one friend
    11. you want to be teacher's pet
    12. you want to convey a grin-and-bear-it posture

Positive postures:
13. interested and alert
14. get attention without disrupting
15. indicate that you want to talk
16. indicate that you want a friend to participate

Posture change:
17. change posture so as to disrupt
18. change posture without seeming fidgety
19. pass cigarette around room without being discovered

B. Have people take different postures. Infer what they're thinking. Use either group of observers or speaker to make the inferences.

A reading on body language and a discussion is to follow the nonverbal exercise. (See materials section.)

Objectives:

1. To have students understand that how one communicates is dependent on one's style and the setting one finds oneself in as indicated in the discussion following the cocktail exercise.

2. To have students examine the characteristics of their own communications by way of the mirroring exercise as indicated by their response in discussion and journal entries to the question of "personal styles of communicating."

3. To give students the opportunity to assess the quality of their own style of communicating as indicated by their response to a journal question on the degree of satisfaction with their own communication style.

4. To help students understand that communication is composed of verbal and nonverbal expression as demonstrated through the body language exercise and indicated in discussion and response to questions on Flora Davis' article (attached) -- Appendix B.

5. To help students understand that verbal messages are not always congruent with the nonverbal message as indicated in modeling and discussion.

Comments:

1. The instructor may find it necessary to coax the more passive students in the class to become active in the "cocktail party." By playing the host, the instructor can help draw some of these students into interaction with the others.

2. On creating groups for activities in this course you may want to think through what combinations of students will make productive groupings. Past experience has shown that close friends should never be placed in the same group since they tend to dominate and/or muffle activities in a group.

Student Materials for Focusing on Communication

A. Cocktail questions
   1. How did it feel to be at this particular party?
   2. Have you been to parties of a similar nature?
   3. What words could you use to describe the type of communication exhibited in this party?
   4. Describe the way you communicate with the following people (how you feel and act) and in the following situations.
      1. Close friend
      2. Parent
      3. Instructor
      4. Adult relative other than parent
      5. A person you dislike (your age -- same sex)
      6. A person of the opposite sex you like
      7. A brother or sister
      8. Advisor
      9. Doctor
      10. In front of a class giving a report
      11. With a group of friends on the way to class
      12. With relatives at a wedding
   5. Just for fun rank the people from easiest to communicate with to hardest to communicate with.
   6. Why is it easiest to communicate with the person you ranked number one?
   7. Why is it the hardest to communicate with the person you ranked last?
   8. What words would you use to describe how you are seen as a communicator?
   9. Are you satisfied with the way you communicate to people? If not, what do you want to change?

Instructor note: In responding to students it would be best to model active listening. By paraphrasing their content and feeling students will be exposed to the technique which they will soon be learning, plus it is an excellent discussion technique. (See activities 6 & 7.)

B. Feeling words for body language exercise.
Joy, frustration, love, fear, shyness, hate, sorrow, hope, loneliness, anger, admiration, contentment.

C. Chart for investigating nonverbal cues to be used after body language game to deepen the understanding of the components of nonverbal communication. Ask students to model some examples of verbal-nonverbal incongruencies.

COMMUNICATION: CONGRUENCE

1. Nonverbal Cues: Body Language Signs

	Quality	
Voice	Harsh/Overly Sweet	Genuine
Facial Expression	Stone-face or disinterested	Interested
Posture	Leans away Tense, rigid or too casual	Leans toward -- relaxed

Eye Contact	Avoidance of eye contact or excessive staring	Maintains reasonable eye contact
Touching	Avoids all contact or smothers (back slapper)	Contact appropriate to situation
Gestures	Closed: guarded or overly jovial	Open, Flexible
Spatial Distance	Too far or too close	About "right Comfortable

2. General Congruence

Similarity of verbal and nonverbal cues -- how "together" is the talk and the body language.

Examples: "Oh, I'm not embarrassed." (Face reddens)

"I really enjoy lecturing to students." (Knuckles white)

"It's so nice to see you." (Voice tight)

"The test you gave us was a useful learning experience." (Eyes like black darts)

D. How to Read Body Language by Flora Davis. Have students read article. (See Appendix B)

E. Questions for Flora Davis article discussion.

1. What cultural idioms that are expressed nonverbally did you find intriguing?

2. What nonverbal idioms do you think Americans have that others may find amusing?

3. Can you think of any that you may have?

4. What is meant by (s)he wears her/his heart on her/his sleeve?

5. Do you know people that are like this? (Heart on their sleeves.)

6. Do American males have some different nonverbal cues from American females? Give examples.

7. Albert Mehrabian says that a total impact of a message can be broken down into 7 percent verbal and 38 percent vocal and 55 percent facial. Can you explain what he means by this? Do you agree with him?

8. What is kinesics?

Instructor note: You may like to have the students try out some of the nonverbal idioms that are explained in the article, e.g. street behavior, private conversations, postures.

F. Observation assignment

Observe a teacher's nonverbal language in a classroom. You should gain the consent of the teacher before conducting the observation.

4. Activity 3: Attending Behavior

Rationale: The value of attending behavior in a helping relationship is perhaps best illustrated by an incident reported by Allen Ivey (197[illegible]). Ivey and his research team were attempting to identify the specific component skills of counseling. In observing a videotape of their secretary, a totally untrained counselor, counseling a volunteer client, they found that as she counseled she was tense and uncomfortable and spent most of her time focusing upon herself and her responsibility for the interview. They then spent twenty minutes training her to maintain eye contact, to assume a comfortable and relaxed physical posture, and to simply ask questions or make comments on what the client said. Following this training session the secretary reinterviewed the same client. The change was dramatic! After this brief training session Mary (the secretary) began exhibiting behavior of a highly skilled, experienced counselor.

Although counselors differ, depending upon their theoretical orientation, as to what client content and feeling they attend, all orientations stress the importance of attending behavior. Thus attending is a common denominator in all counseling approaches.

Activity 3A Description: Mini-lecture on Attending Behavior

The teacher should outline the rationale and basic elements of attending behavior. The following is a brief outline of the components of attending behavior and can be supplemented as the teacher desires.

Attending Behavior

Good attending behavior demonstrates to the client that you respect him as a person and that you are interested in what he has to say. By utilizing attending behavior to enhance a person's self-respect and to establish a secure atmosphere, the interviewer facilitates free expression of whatever is on the interviewee's mind. (The term "interviewer" is used here to refer to the person in the helping role.)

There are three primary types of activities which best characterize good attending behavior:

1. The interviewer should be physically relaxed and seated with natural posture. If the interviewer is comfortable, he is better able to listen to the person with whom he is talking. Also, if the interviewer is relaxed physically, his posture and movements will be natural, thus enhancing his own sense of well- being. This sense of comfortableness better enables the interviewer to attend to, and to communicate with, the client.

2. The interviewer should initiate and maintain eye contact with the interviewee. However, eye contact can be overdone. A varied use of eye contact is most effec-

tive, as staring fixedly or with undue intensity usually makes the client uneasy; but if you are going to listen to someone, look at them.

3. The final characteristic of good attending behavior is the interviewer's use of comments which follow directly from what the interviewee is saying. By directing one's comments and questions to the topics provided by the client, one not only helps him develop an area of discussion, but reinforces the client's free expression, resulting in more spontaneity and animation in the client's talking.

In summary, the interview's goal is to listen attentively and to communicate this attentiveness through a relaxed posture, use of varied eye contact, and verbal responses which indicate to the client that he is attempting to understand what the client is communicating. Specific behaviors which may be utilized are:

1. Relax physically; feel the presence of the chair as you are sitting on it. Let your posture be comfortable and your movements natural; for example, if you usually move and gesture a good deal, feel free to do so at this time.

2. Use eye contact by looking at the person with whom you are talking.

3. Follow what the other person is saying by taking your cues from him. Don't jump from subject to subject or interrupt him. If you can't think of anything to say, go back to something the client said earlier in the conversation and ask him a question about that. There is no need to talk about yourself or your opinions when you are attending.

A final point, respect yourself and the other person. Ask questions or make comments about things that interest and seem relevant to you. Check the lines of communication between you and the other person. Make sure you are accurately receiving each other's messages. If you are truly interested in what is being said, attending behavior often follows automatically. But remember, the more interested you are, the harder it sometimes becomes to keep yourself quiet and listen to the other person.

Objectives:

1. To introduce the concept and basic elements of attending behavior.
2. To show the importance of attending behavior by citing the opinions of experts and results of research.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor should use the information listed above plus any other appropriate information to prepare a short lecture to introduce the concept of attending behavior.
2. It is important for the instructor to engage the class in a discussion to clear up any misunderstandings, to clarify, and to facilitate any additional ideas that the students have.
3. The instructor might want to elicit examples from the experiences of the students in which they observed attending or non-attending behavior. The instructor would then want to draw out the personal reactions of the students to these experiences.

Comments:

This exercise is usually the first time that students have consciously thought about the impact of a concept as simple and common as attending behavior.

Activity 3B Description: Exercises in Physical Attending

The following exercises afford the student the opportunity to experience the impact of attending and non-attending behavior and to practice attending behavior. Any or all of the following exercises (or others) can be used.

Exercise 1: Experiencing non-attending in a dyad.

a. Either assign or let students pair up.

b. Partner A is to tell partner B about an experience. B should violate the rules of attending (look away, fidget, make comments that do not follow, etc.).

c. Do this for about 2-3 minutes and then reverse the roles with A not attending and B relating an experience.

d. Process the experience with students relating how they felt both as a non-attender and as a speaker.

Exercise 2: Attending-non-attending in a group

a. Form a group of 6-8 students.

b. Choose a topic of common interest to college students (i.e., relationships with opposite sex, parents, roommates, choosing a future, etc.).

c. Have a discussion on the topic for 3-4 minutes, during which half of the members attend while the other half does not attend.

d. After 3-4 minutes have the non-attenders attend and the attenders not attend.

e. Discuss the effects of attending and non-attending.

Exercise 3: Attending in a dyad

a. Either assign or let students pair up.

b. Select a topic of interest such as a most embarrassing moment.

c. Partner A relates the experience and B tries to attend as much as possible and makes relevant comments.

d. After 2-3 minutes reverse the roles.

e. Discuss the experience both as talker and listener.

Objectives

1. To have the students experience the personal impact of both being attended to and not attended to.

2. To have the students experience the use and impact of attending and non-attending behaviors.

3. To have the students reflect upon their general style of attending by comparing their typical attending behavior with role play behaviors used in the exercises.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor can use these exercises to get students to know one another by not allowing good friends to form a dyad.

2. The instructor should stress the skills of good attending behavior and by carefully monitoring the groups during the attending parts of the exercise. The instructor should make mental notes of those needing special attention.

3. It is important for the instructor to get at the personal reactions of students during the exercises. These reactions should show the many common feelings that are engendered by both kinds of attending.

Comments:

Special attention should be given to teaching the basic attending skills. For most the act of attending produces at least some stress. It is important to discuss this possible uncomfortableness of attending behavior. Often students complain of the artificiality of trying to attend. Tell them this is common but that once attending behavior has been initiated, the talker tends to become more animated and real and that this in turn reinforces the attender to forget about deliberately attending and attending becomes more and more natural. Sometimes this feeling of artificiality may indicate that the topic being discussed is not relevant to both parties or is being discussed at greater length than seems natural and/or productive. In such instances a new topic may be warranted.

5. Activity 4: Intentions Underlying Responses

Rationale: Attending behavior is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for a helping relationship. It does not provide other than minimal verbal interaction, although the people being helped get a feeling of your interest they have no way of knowing if they are really understood, and attention in itself does not foster going deeper into the problem. The responses made by the helpee are extremely important and can either be a bridge or a barrier to further productive communication. Carl Rogers found that 80% of the responses made by people could be classified by the intention of the responder. Although there are many ways to classify responses the method used by Rogers seems especially appropriate for use in teaching active listening. Through the use of this classification system students can look at their typical response style pattern, are forced to examine the intent underlying their response and have a basis for changing their style to become more effective in counseling situations.

Activity 4A Description: Mini-lecture on Response Styles

The following material forms the basis for the mini-lecture on response styles as categorized by the intentions of the responder. Rogers formulated the following types of responses in order of most to least frequently used in everyday conversation: Evaluative, Interpretive, Supportive, Probing, and Understanding. The following descriptions give the major characteristics of each type of response:

Types of Responses

A. Evaluative (Advising): A response in which the intention is to make a judgment of the relative goodness, appropriateness, effectiveness or rightness of the statement. The receiver has in some way implied what the sender might or ought to do. This response puts the responder in the position of the expert who has the answer to the problem.

Example: "If I were you I wouldn't let him get away with it, he is just taking advantage of you."

B. Interpretive (Analyzing): A response in which the intention is to tell the other person what the problem really means, the responder indicates that he knows the cause of the problem. It tells the person with the problem what he should think. The responder feels he knows the cause of the speaker's feelings and then proceeds to explain them.

Example: "You feel that way about the principal because you basically do not trust anyone in positions of authority."

C. Supportive (Reassuring): A response that intends to reassure and pacify or minimize the feelings of the sender. The responder conveys that others have felt that way before and that things are not all that bad and the feeling will soon go away. The responder wants the sender to feel better. The responder has in some way implied that the sender need not feel as he does.

Example: "We all have days like this once in a while and I'll bet tomorrow the kids will come in, settle down and all will be forgotten."

D. Probing (Questioning): A response that indicates the responder's intent is to seek more information, provoke further discussion along a certain line, to question the sender. Probing responses are used to clarify confusing areas, to find out something not said, to narrow the content of topics or to change the focus of the interchange. The responder implies that the sender might profitibly develop or discuss a point further.

Example: "Why did you decide to drop out of math,didn't you know you would need that for graduation?"

E. Understanding (Paraphrasing, Reflecting, Clarifying): A response that checks out whether the responder correctly understands what the sender is saying, how the sender sees and feels about the problem. It says this is what I understand -- is that correct? This response shows that the responder's tuned in to what the sender is saying and how the sender feels about the situation.

Example: "You really want to ask her for extra help, but you don't really want to draw attention to the problems you're having."

The responses are neither good nor bad in and of themselves -- they serve different purposes. It is, however, worth noting that the order of frequency in everyday conversation is inversely related to the degree that the response facilitates clear and direct communication. While the evaluative or advising response is the most frequent it is the least facilitative of clear communication and the understanding response while the least frequent in everyday conversation is the most facilitative. The evaluative response should be used with extreme caution, especially early in the helping relationship. It tends to make the sender defensive and takes the responsibility away from him and moves the focus from sender to responder. In some circumstances it can be appropriate -- if the sender asks the responder's opinion or if the responder want to disclose his own values. The interpretive response moves focus from the sender to the responder, is very often threatening, tends to intellectualize the conversation and, frankly, even in the hands of experienced therapists is often wrong. It can, however, provide new insights if used by a skilled helper. The supportive response shifts the feelings from the sender to the responder, minimizes feelings and often gives the sender the feeling the responder doesn't understand the problem or the feeling. It is perhaps appropriate if the person is in dire need of support or acceptance before he can carry on. The probing response limits areas about which sender can talk and moves focus from what sender wants to say to what responder wants to hear. However it can prove to be very helpful in that it may provide a clearer definition of the problem and prevent the sender from avoiding meaningful topics. It also helps clear up misunderstandings that the responder may have. The probing response can be an extremely effective approach early in the interview. Since the job of the helper is to find out how the helpee sees the situation, it is important to get him to talk about things that he sees as important. The most useful type of probing response is the open-ended probe. An open probe may be best understood when compared with a closed questioning approach (referred to here as a "closed probe" even though technically this is not a "probe").

Open: "Could you tell me something about your problems with school?" or
"How do you feel about being new to this school?"

Closed: "Do you plan on quitting school?" or
"Do you like this school?"

The open probe provides room for the helpee to express his real self without the imposed categories of the helper. The helpee can explore himself, can direct the conversation around his concerns, and in the process can clarify his concerns. The closed probe emphasizes facts rather than feelings, shuts off exploration, puts the helper in charge and most often produces a yes or no response.

Developing skill in formulating understanding responses is a basic focus of this counseling skills module. This is the response that Carl Rogers calls the "gateway to communication." The understanding response is particularly facilitative of helpful interpersonal relationships since it:

1. Leads to exploration of ideas and feelings.
2. Aids helpee in recognizing previously denied feelings.
3. Moves the conversation to more productive areas.
4. Corrects faulty meanings.
5. Shows interest and caring.
6. Is cathartic -- makes people feel better.
7. Helps person discover that his feelings are a positive part of life.
8. Fosters feelings of self-worth and acceptance.
9. Reduces threat or fear, person becomes less defensive.
10. Puts responsibility upon helpee.

The following quote from Rogers best sums up the value of the understanding response:

> "It (the understanding response) is an approach which we have found extremely potent in the field of psychotherapy. It is the most effective agent we know for altering the basic personality structure of the individual and for his relationship and communication with others. If I can listen to what he tells me, if I can understand how it may seem to him, if I can see its personal meaning for him, if I can sense the emotional flavor which it has for him, then I will be releasing potent forces of change in him." (Rogers, 1952).

Objectives:

1. To become aware of the five modes of response.
2. To learn the vocabulary for classifying and organizing response modes.
3. To become aware of the facilitating quality of the different types of responses and to learn the weaknesses and strengths of each.
4. To impress upon the students the value of an understanding response.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor should become thoroughly familiar with the above material and supplement it with any appropriate material he/she has.
2. The instructor should let students generate their own examples of the different types of responses.
3. It is valuable to get the students' personal reactions to situations in which each of the types has been used with them.
4. A method that has been successful is to create a helpee statement (write on the board, pass out on a sheet of paper or let a student role play) and then to let students create responses to this statement. The responses are then written on the board and later categorized into the five modes.

Comments:

It is especially important to give the pros and cons of each type of statement. More than one name is listed for each category so that the instructor can choose what seems most appropriate. Remember to stress that all can be appropriate at certain times (since students like to defend what they do most) and that the level of facilitation is on a continuum, not an all or nothing at all situation.

Activity 4B Description: Identifying Response Styles

The two exercises on response styles can be handed out to the students to have them identify responses by the categories.

Response Styles

Place each response in the proper category: Evaluative (E), interpretive (I), Supportive (S), Probing (P), or Understanding (U).

BOY -- "I have the queerest feeling. Whenever anything good happens to me -- I just can't believe it. I act as though it never happened. And it worries me. I wanted a date with Myrtle -- a I stood around for weeks before I got up enough courage to ask her for a date, and she said 'yes' -- and I couldn't believe it. I couldn't believe it so much that I didn't keep the date."

_E_ 1. You've got to get with and get a more realistic idea about women. They're human too, you know, and want dates just as much as you do.

_U_ 2. It just doesn't seem real when something good happens to you?

_I_ 3. You have probably denied to yourself so strongly that anything good could happen to you that when it does it seems unreal.

_P_ 4. Maybe these feelings of unreality are connected with a particular area of your life. What do you mean when you say, "Whenever anything good happens to me?"

_S_ 5. It's not a big thing. Lots of people get the same kinds of feelings. You'll snap out of it.

GIRL -- "I've lived in this town all my life, and in the same house for seven years, but I don't know anybody. At school I just can't seem to make friends. Part of the time I'm in a resource room, but most of the time I'm in regular class, so I see lots of kids. I try to be nice to the other kids, but I feel all uncomfortable inside. And then I tell myself that I don't care. People aren't dependable, everyone is out for himself, I don't want any friends. And sometimes I think I really mean it."

_S_ 1. Listen, here's what we can do. You can join this club I know about. The groups are small and they want more members. They go horseback riding and things like that, so even if you are too afraid to make friends at first, at least you can have fun.

_P_ 2. When you first meet someone, how do you act? What do you say to them?

_U_ 3. It's gone on so long it almost has you convinced. Is that right?

_I_ 4. Maybe your not wanting friends is just to cover up for something else.

_E_ 5. It's pretty hard to be without friends. I would really work on that. There are lots of things that you could do to learn how to make friends, and the sooner you start, the better.

Response Styles

Apply the following labels to the responses provided below: Evaluative (E), Interpretive (I), Supportive (S), Probing (P), Understanding (U).

A 48 Year-old Teacher to Another Teacher:

My kids are all gone. I like teaching, but it just doesn't seem to be enough. My husband and I don't really know each other any more. I'm restless and I have this vague feeling that life is slipping away and I just don't know . . .

S 1. Don't worry -- what you're experiencing is very common for people your age. You'll snap out of it.

P 2. How did you live life differently when your kids were home?

I 3. Maybe you focused so much on your kids because you're really afraid of a close relationship with a man. Now that the kids are gone, you're forced to face what you fear.

U 4. You're feeling kind of lost and unfulfilled because something seems to be missing from your life.

E 5. You just have to grab hold of things. It doesn't really do you any good to mope around. I would suggest that you husband and you go to a marriage counselor -- and soon!

A Teacher Aide to Another Teacher about the Head Teacher for Whom she Works:

I just can't seem to get along with Sally. She thinks she knows everything and has all the answers. Most of what we do are her ideas. It seems that my ideas aren't important.

I 1. Might it be that when you were a child in order for you to get parental love you were forced into a passive non-assertive role and that you still think that assertive behavior is not compatible with approval from others?

P 2. Could you tell me some more about how you behave with Sally?

S 3. I'll bet nobody can get along with Sally. Don't worry about it. If you can just last out the year I'm sure she won't be back next year.

E 4. That behavior is typical of you! You just have to be more assertive in these situations. You can't let people push you around the rest of your life.

U 5. You feel left out and not a very important member of the team when Sally treats you that way.

Objectives:

1. To learn to identify the five modes of response.

2. To reinforce the vocabulary of response types.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor prepares the worksheet and discusses with the students any questions they might have with the classification.

2. The instructor can ask how students would feel under each type of response.

Comments:

The important thing to remember is that you want students to be able to identify modes of response and identify the basic purposes implied by the names given each, for example students should be able to identify an understanding response and to know why the response is classified as understanding.

Activity 4C Description: Practice in Creating Types of Responses

This can be handled in several different ways. One small group can model for the whole class by having a person role play a situation and then having several helpers respond in each of the indicates styles. After the modeling for the class, small groups can be formed to give each student a chance to create each type of response.

Objectives:

1. To progress from recognizing the types of responses to creating the types.
2. To personally experience the impact on the helpee of each type of response.
3. To have students experience the difficulty of creating understanding responses.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor must help students create roles for the role plays.
2. The instructor will have to judge the fit between the created response and the intended category.
3. The instructor should have the helpee and helper discuss their personal reactions to receiving and sending each type of response.

Comments:

Students usually find they have fun with the easier and more frequent types of responses and feel some degree of frustration with trying to create an understanding response. Don't expect high levels of understanding responses since that is the basic teaching task to follow.

Activity 4D Description: Feedback on Individual Response Style

This activity consists of giving each student his response style pattern as indicated by the results of the Porter Communications Procedures Inventory (see Appendix G). Each item of this 10-item inventory has a response that can be categorized as evaluative, interpretive, supportive, probing or understanding. Thus each student will have some combination of each of these types for his response pattern.

Objectives:

1. To give each student an opportunity to reflect on his normal response style.
2. To encourage students to change the response pattern toward more facilitative responses.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor scores and returns the individual response styles. Do not give back the question sheets since the same test will be given as a post-test to show student progress.
2. It is best to not evaluate the patterns but simply to encourage each student to attempt to change his pattern toward the more facilitative responses.

Comments:

The pre-test results of students on the Porter Communication Procedures Inventory differ slightly from Rogers' reported frequency of adults in general. While Rogers reports evaluative, interpretive, supportive, probing and understanding as the order from most to least frequent, the data we have on students shows the typical order of frequency from most to least frequent to be evaluative, supportive, probing, understanding and interpretive. Thus it appears that students either do not know enough about human behavior to attempt to be interpretive or else they know enough about their own limitations not to attempt interpretive responses. It is interesting to note that on post-tests the two most frequent responses are understanding and interpretive which gives some evidence that perhaps the hypothesis of lack of knowledge about human behavior is the more plausible.

Activity 4E Description: Barriers and Gateways to Communication - Carl R. Rogers

This activity is simply assigning the article "Barriers and Gateways to Communication" by Carl R. Rogers. This article (see Appendix C) was published in the Harvard Business Review, July-August, 1952.

Objectives:

1. To reinforce the degree of facilitativeness between evaluative and understanding responses.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor can construct a worksheet to be filled out after the article has been read. The following are some of the questions that could be used.
   a. According to Rogers, what is the major barrier to effective communication? Why?
   b. What is the gateway and why?
   c. What is the laboratory-type experiment that Rogers suggests you try sometime when you have an argument with a friend, girl or guy, parent?

d. What does Rogers see as the three major difficulties in achieving the type of good communication he describes?
e. Please write some reactions to the article.
f. What does Rogers see as the major task of therapy?
g. What does Rogers see as the ultimate benefit of good communication between people?

Comments:

It is important to point out that this course is not designed to train psychotherapists but school personnel able to help students and peers. Therefore, the class focuses upon good communication within or between people and stresses the assumption that good interpersonal communications are always therapeutic.

Exercise 2:

In this exercise the student reads a series of statements about a situation and then generates possible surface (expressed) and underlying feelings (implied). For example:

Tenth-grade girl to teacher: "I just hate to go home after school. Either I'm fighting with my parents or they're fighting with each other. I feel so uneasy at home.

Uneasy Upset	Alone, Vulnerable, Cheated Anger Frustrated, Unloved, Unlucky
(Surface feelings)	(Underlying feelings)

Exercise 3:

The objective of this exercise is to increase awareness of the ambiguity of expressing feelings in nonverbal or in behavioral ways. The situation described involves the expression of feelings through certain non-verbal behaviors. The procedure for the exercise is as follows:

a. Divide into groups of four.
b. For each situation describe at least two different feelings that might have produced the nonverbal expression of feelings.
c. Compare answers with other group members and discuss until understood.
d. In the group as a whole, share feelings and reactions to the exercise. What did you learn? How would you react if you were in the group and the given behavior occurred? Are there times when nonverbal expression of feelings is more powerful than a verbal description of feelings?

Example: Without expression, Mary suddenly changed the subject in a classroom discussion. What are two different feelings that may have caused Mary to do this?

a. discomfort with the topic
b. left out

Exercise 4:

Divide the group into small groups of three or four. Have each person recall and describe an intense emotional experience. Each of the other members is to describe as accurately as possible how the person felt during the experience. The person relating the experience gives feedback on the accuracy of the perceived feelings.

Exercise 5:

Pictures of facial expressions, movies or TV video tapes (without the sound) can be used to have students practice picking up nonverbal experssions of feeling.

Objectives:

1. To assist students in perceiving feelings from a variety of perspectives: from picking among adjectives to creating their own adjectives; from surface to underlying; from written statements to live models; from verbal to nonverbal expressions.

2. To show that it is not only legitimate but often necessary to hypothesize about feelings since most are not directly expressed.

3. To legitimatize the possession of feelings in each human being.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor should pick and choose from the above exercises as seems most appropriate for the group.

2. The instructor can make his own exercises as described above. Ready made exercises are available from the Egan workbook, and the Gazda book as listed in the bibliography.

Comments:

The writer's experience with Exercise 4 has been particularly positive. This exercise gets students involved in the process of self-disclosure, it legitimatizes possession of feelings, it often makes the discloser aware of unrecognized feelings and it provides the first real opportunity for face-to-face perception of feelings.

Activity 5C Description: Think-Feel Discrimination

This exercise is an adaptation of an exercise from A Handbook of Structural Experiences for Human Relations Training (Vol. 3) by J. W. Pfeiffer and J. E. Jones.

A. The group is divided into small groups of 3, 4, or 5.

B. The instructor writes on the board the phrase "Now I see." Participants are to describe the nonverbal behavior of the other group members by statements that begin with "Now I see." Do this for 5 minutes, then process for 2 minutes.

C. The instructor writes on the board "Now I think." Participants are to continue the conversation beginning each sentence with "Now I think." Do this for 5 minutes and then process for 2 minutes.

D. The phrase "Now I feel" is written on the board. After a couple minutes of group interaction the instructor explains that groups often confuse thoughts and feelings. Members avoid "I feel that" and "I feel like" and instead are to use the phrase "Now I feel" followed by an adjective. Take about 10 minutes for the interaction and 3 minutes for processing.

E. Have total group discuss the experience.

Objectives:

1. To distinguish thoughts from feelings.
2. To have each student get more in touch with ihs own feelings.

Instructor's Role:

1. To illustrate examples of "now I see," "Now I think," and "Now I feel."
2. To check on each group to see that they perform as indicated.
3. To see that during the "Now I feel" exercise the students are focusing upon their own feelings and not on others in the group.

Comments:

Students easily confuse thoughts and feelings and this exercise helps in making the distinction.

7. Activity 6: Reflection of Feelings

Rationale: Now that students have had practice in perceiving feelings in the verbal and nonverbal behavior of helpees (students, peers) we move on to the use of this perception in the examining of a response that actually reflects a feeling. Listening and responding to feelings is an excellent way to help a student deal productively with the central concerns of his life. By communicating "I accurately sense the world as you are feeling and perceiving it" a teacher can facilitate the student's movement toward more complete self-awareness and understanding. Being alert to, and responding to, the feeling being expressed is a skill which is appropriate at any time, regardless of the nature of the feeling (positive, negative, or ambivalent) and regardless of the direction of expression (toward self, others, teacher and student situation). However, identifying and reflecting the feeling or emotional part of a message is not a simple task. Feelings are often not stated directly but are implied indirectly and/or deliberately hidden by the sender. "Mustn't let our feelings show," "Stiff upper lip," etc. are simply a few common proscriptions about letting feelings out. Further, recent research (Schachter, 1970) has shown that we actually do not know how we feel at a particular time. The so-called "juke-box" theory of emotions indicates that humans have difficulty in actually discovering what they may be experiencing. Affective arousal, the stirring of feelings is usually followed by a checking out process. The person scans the environment and gradually figures out how he is supposed to feel in that situation. Also during this process greater differentiation often occurs. The person becomes more aware of the variety, nuances and mixtures of feelings. Thus a gradual identification and articulation of emotions accompanies the process.

Activity 6 Description: Recognition of a Feeling Response

In the example below, you will have an opportunity to select the alternative which indicates that you understand a student or peer's attitude, the situation as it appears to him/her -- the alternative which if said would likely evoke a response of "that's it!"

Example: "You know, it's funny, but when I have to speak in class I feel shakey all over! It's really silly -- why do I do that?"

A. Are you a nervous person?
B. Where do you shake?
C. The reaction puzzles and concerns you!

Responses A and B seek additional information, while response C catches the gist of the student's feelings in rephrased fresh words.

Objectives:

1. To recognize a feeling response.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor should write up enough examples like the one above to teach students the basic elements of a feeling response.

2. The instructor should stress the value of responses that restate the feeling in the student or peer's own words.

8. Activity 7: Paraphrasing Content

Rationale: There are two basic parts to any message -- the emotional aspect and the cognitive or content aspect. Just as it is important to get the feeling associated with the message, a good communicator also accurately follows the content.

Activity Description: Recognizing the Content of a Response

A couple of exercises can be used to assist in picking up the content of a message.

Exercise 1:

Circle the statement that is an accurate restatement of the content of the speaker's statement. More than one statement may be correct.

> "My best friend has just turned her back on me! And I don't have any idea why. From how she acted, I think she thinks I've been talking about her to others. Damn! This school is just full of gossips. I hope she hasn't been listening to those rotten people who just want to stir up trouble."

The person whose friend turned her back on her is really upset because:

a. she doesn't want her friendship to be the victim of some malicious gossip.
b. it's frustrating to her because she's not sure what's really going on.
c. she's been loyal to her friend, but now her friend has let her down.
d. she'd really like to tell her friend and the whole neighborhood off.
e. she knows that she wouldn't act like that.

Exercise 2:

Tenth-grade girl to teacher:

"I just hate to go home after school. Either I'm fighting with my parents or they're fighting with each other. I feel so uneasy at home."

She feels uneasy because ______________________________

____

Exercise 3:

This is an exercise in paraphrasing the content of a message. The teacher attempts to feed back to the student the essence of what was said. Examples of good paraphrasing:

Student: "I don't know about him. One moment he's as nice as pie and so friendly and the next he just ignores me or treats me like dirt."

Teacher: "He's pretty inconsistent then."

Student: "There are a million things to do, they just keep piling up. I don't see how anyone can get it all done."

Teacher: Your schoolwork just seems to occupy all your time."

Exercise 4:

Have students create statements from their experience and have class members volunteer accurate paraphrases.

Objectives:

1. To recognize the content of a message.

2. To learn to clarify confusing content, tying a number of recent comments together and highlighting issues by paraphrasing them accurately and concisely.

Instructor's Role:

1. To create exercises like the above in order to give sufficient practice at the skill.

2. To stress the double part of a message -- content and feeling.

Comments:

The ability to make concise paraphrases that tie comments into a general statement is the main objective of these exercises. Don't expect perfection, it takes time and the counseling experiences that follow give lots of practice.

9. Activity 8: Active Listening Scale

Rationale: Now that students have had practice with identifying content, paraphrasing content, perceiving feelings and reflecting feelings we are ready to put them together and to learn to discriminate between various facilitative levels of paraphrasing and reflection.

Activity Description: Mini-lecture on the Levels of the Active Listening Scale.

This activity is simply a presentation of the facilitative levels within the scale. Most of our initial work involved using a 5-point scale which is shown below. Experience has taught us that level 5's are so rare even among experienced therapists that we decided to go with a basic 3 level scale. We combined the 1 and 2 level and called it subtractive, left the 3 level by itself and called it interchangeable, and combined the 4 and 5 levels into one scale called additive. A description of the scale follows:

Active Listening Scale

	Response to Feelings-Emotions	Response to Content-Ideas
Additive	5. Goes well beyong the person's expressed feelings. Provides the person with a major new view of the emotions he/she is experiencing.	5. Goes well beyong the stated meaning. Provides new insight.
	4. Goes to a slightly deeper feeling than expressed. Helps person understand his/her own feelings in more depth. Goes just beyong the emotions expressed.	4. Goes slightly beyong the meaning stated. Provides some new insight. More concise. Helps the person understand his/her own ideas better.
Interchangeable	3. An accurate understanding of feelings and/or emotions, expressed in your own words. An accurate reading of feelings.	3. An accurate understanding of the content - a restatement in your own words of what the person said.
Subtractive	2. A slight distortion of the feelings expressed - a near miss.	2. A slight distortion of meaning -- just misses what the person said.
	1. No awareness of feelings expressed, the wrong feelings -- or a genuine putdown.	1. Dead wrong -- the opposite of what was said. A complete miss as to meaning or an active disinterest.

Objectives:

1. To teach the various facilitative levels of the active listening scale.

Instructor's Role:

1. To give a mini-lecture on the scale and to handle any relevant discussion.

Comments:

It is important to stress that level 3 or the interchangeable response is the lowest level of response which can facilitate a helping interaction.

10. Activity 9: Paper and Pencil Exercises Designed to Promote the Development of Active Listening Skills

Rationale: There are a number of methods that can be used to develop the skills associated with active listening. Once the nature of the scale is understood it is necessary to teach the distinction between the various facilitative responses and to develop each student's ability to create facilitating responses. There are three general types of exercises used in this course to develop these active listening skills: the use of paper and pencil exercises, experiential activities and observing effective and ineffectual models. This section deals with the paper and pencil exercises.

Activity 9A Description: Rating the Facilitative Level of Responses

Exercise 1:

Before students are expected to rate responses they should be given an example with ratings and a discussion of the ratings. For example:

> Ten-year-old girl to resource room teacher. (Mrs. Stewart is a very matter-of-fact no-nonsense regular class teacher. She is very well organized.) "Mrs. Stewart is crabby. She always yells at us kids in class. Sometimes she sends my friend Ann, who's the best reader in the class, out in the hall during reading. She's just so mean! And she never did tell me I had to finish all four pages even if she told you she did."

Rating - (Subtractive)

a. She's always so nice when I talk to her. It's hard for me to imagine you can get so angry at her.

Discussion: This response tells the student she really doesn't have a right to feel as she does. The focus is on the teacher's reaction rather than the student's. The teacher denies the student her feelings and very likely doesn't want her to feel that way.

Rating - (Subtractive)

b. What does Ann do to get sent to the hall?

Discussion: This response selects that part of the content of the message that is the least personal to the student. The student's feelings are totally ignored. The focus is taken from the student to Mrs. Stewart and Ann. The response implies that perhaps Mrs. Stewart was justified in sending Ann to the hall.

Rating 3 (interchangeable)

c. Mrs. Stewart gets you angry when she treats you and the rest of the kids the way she does.

Discussion: This response gives back to the student the surface feeling and thoughts she expressed in her statement. The student would feel that you understood her thoughts and feelings.

Rating 3 (interchangeable)

d. You feel unliked by Mrs. Stewart because of how she treats you.

Discussion: Again this response, although perhaps dealing with a more basic feeling of unliked rather than anger, is essentially interchangeable in both content and feeling.

Rating + (additive)

e. You get angry at Mrs. Stewart when she's crabby and perhaps a little disgusted at yourself for not being more responsible about your schoolwork.

Discussion: The part "disgusted at yourself for not being a more responsible group member" deepens the student's knowledge about her feelings and the reasons for these feelings. This makes it additive. Now it is possible that she might not feel that way, but it is offered as a tentative hypothesis and if it is not accurate then the response is not additive.

Rating + (additive)

f. It sounds like you have mixed-up feelings -- like at times you are disgusted enough that you wish you could get out of Mrs. Stewart's class, but you want to stay because your best friends are in the class.

Discussion: This is additive because it picks up the underlying feeling of wanting to get away from Mrs. Stewart yet wanting to stay in the class.

Exercise 2:

In this type of exercise students are to score the responses as + (additive, levels 4 or 5); 3 (interchangeable, level 3); or - (subtractive, levels 1 or 2).

Example: "Sometimes I feel like I'm going nowhere -- in school, with my friends. I always hang back and watch the good things happen to other people."

_-_ a. I know. Everyone has good things in their life.

_3_ b. You're disgusted because you don't feel as successful as others.

_-_ c. Don't you think it's about time you got on the stick?

_+_ d. It seems like you're at a standstill -- frustrated and not knowing how to make those good thigns happen to you.

_3_ e. You feel unproductive when you compare yourself to others.

_+_ f. You feel disgusted and angry at yourself because you don't use the skills and talents you have.

Objectives:

1. To learn to recognize the differences in the various facilitative levels of responses.

Instructor's Role:

1. To construct appropriate exercises on rating responses.
2. To point out the basic differences between facilitative levels.
3. To point out the tentativeness of additive responses.

Activity 9B Description: Writing Responses for Each of the Facilitative Levels

Exercise 1:

In this exercise students are to construct an additive, a subtractive, and and interchangeable response to various student statements. A sheet containing the following information can be handed out to help students with this exercise.

Response Levels

- level 1 or 2	= level 3	level 4 or 5 +
subtractive	interchangeable	additive

1. Any response that diminishes and/or distorts and/or denies the feelings and thoughts of a person's statement is rated as being subtractive. (-)
2. A response that paraphrases (gives back to the sender) the thoughts and feelings of a person's statement is rated as being interchangeable, which is the same thing as an understanding response. (=)
3. A response that deepens the knowledge of the person's feelings and thoughts about a problem is rated as being additive. (+)

Our concern is to train the people in this class to be able to respond to others with understanding when it is appropriate to do so. Only the individual can judge when the time is right!

Here's a format that may be useful in phrasing interchangeable, or as we sometimes call them, understanding responses.

I hear you saying that you feel __________ because ____________.
feeling word — thought/content

As you become more skillful the interchangeable responses will sound less forced and awkward and more natural.

Construct an additive, subtractive and interchangeable response to this statement.

> Student to a resource room teacher: "My English teacher gets me so nervous that I just hate to get up to go to school. His voice gets on my nerves. He thinks I'm dumb and that I'm a goof-off -- (pause) -- I don't know."

+ ____

3 ____

- ____

Objectives:

1. To learn to write different levels of responses to written situations.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor should stress the -- you feel ______________ because ______________ format at this point.
2. Encourage students to use their own langauge while stil retaining the central thoughts and feelings of the school child.

11. Activity 10: Experiential Exercises Designed to Promote the Development of Active Listening Skills

Rationale: The previous exercises to promote active listening skills were paper and pencil tests that allowed students a fair amount of time to think about their responses. The experiential exercises that follow tend to produce more stress since students feel the pressure of time and also feel more on the spot since they are dealing with a live "helpee."

Activity 10A Description: Round Robin

The Round Robin is an exercise involving a small group of students (usually 4-5 or 6) in which one student is the helpee and the rest of the students are designated as helpers. The helpee either role plays a problem or selects a real problem and the rest of the students in the group assume helping roles. Time devoted to each helpee is flexible with a period of 5-10 minutes being typical. The group can usually get a feel when the helping situation is exhausted. There are two ways of setting up the round robin -- forced rotation in which each student takes a turn in order or the free method in which students respond when they feel they have something helpful to say. At the end of each helping session the students should process the helping session.

Objectives:

1. To get students to generate helping responses to live helpees.

2. To provide direct feedback from helpee to helper.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor should see that the "facilitative helpers" are spread among small groups to provide the "less facilitative helpers" with models.

2. The instructor should encourage "appropriate self-disclosure" on the part of the helpers. As stated above, students can either role-play (pretend to have certain problems) or they can discuss real problems. Role playing, although not easy, is less demanding than discussing real problems. Role playing is less threatening and allows students to ease into the helpee's role. If students role-play encourage them to pick something that has some meaning to them since the more distant the role is from the person the more difficult time the helper will have in making meaningful responses. Particularly relevant, of course, are problems involving children in school, their parents and teachers.

   If, on the other hand, students choose to talk about themselves, they should be advised to take some care in selecting what to reveal. There is no way that strict confidentiality can be enforced in the group. Tell students that group issues stay in the group, but make a strong point that there is really no way of controlling confidentiality. The final judge of what is appropriate to disclose is the student. Dramatic self-disclosure is not a goal of the course. Encourage students to talk with you if they have some question about the appropriateness of a personal issue. You will find that as trust builds in the group more substantive issues will appear. If at times you sense a person disclosing more than is appropriate, focus the direction to the less threatening parts of the issue. A good way of promoting appropriate self-disclosure is to have students make a list of topics or issues that are neither too superficial nor too intimate to bring before the group. The Johari Window (Luft, 1970) can be used to show what can happen with appropriate self-disclosure.

3. The instructor must be careful in organizing the structure for each group to process themselves after the helpee is through being helped. Encourage helpers to reveal how they felt in the helping role -- what they felt good about and when they felt at a loss as to what to do. Get the helpee to talk about which types of responses were especially helpful and which ones either didn't help or detracted from the process. It usually is not helpful to point negative fingers at certain helpers. The best method is to reinforce good responses and extinguish non-facilitative responses by ignoring them. The instructor should be in on as many of the processings as possible.

4. Some groups may need encouragement to stay at the task, so monitor them closely.

Comments:

This is the beginning of the real substance of the course. Students will often develop hostility because of the difficulty of the task and their own sense of incompetence. Be positive -- yet firm. Don't be really fussy about making only understanding responses -- probing and supporting is often necessary simply to get more information or to establish some respite from the stress. Besides, nobody always gives level 3's or 4's. Another point -- students often complain about the forced rotation method in the round robin. It has distinct advantages that seem to point out the fact that at least some of the round robins should used the forced rotation method: each gets a turn and must respond, the verbal members do not take over the group, the instructor gets a better idea about the skill level of each student and the quiet ones are often some of the best helpers. In the forced rotation you can allow students the right to pass as long as they don't abuse the option. The instructor may want to select a small group to do a round robin before the class. This can be an excellent teaching technique especially if good facilitators are selected as models. The instructor should probably be a member of the group to model helping responses and to model appropriate processing behavior.

Activity 10B Description: Counseling in Triads and Dyads

These exercises should be used after some skills have been developed with the use of round robins. In the triad exercise have each group select a helpee, a helper and a process observer. Rotate the roles so that each gets a chance for each role. The members of each dyad should also change roles. There should be no hard time restrictions but 10-15 minutes is perhaps the maximum at this stage of development. Again have the members process the experience at the end of each helping session.

Objectives:

1. To practice skills of active listening.
2. To practice appropriate self-disclosing behavior.
3. To learn to critique a helping session.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor should pay special attention to preparing the process observers. The analysis of Communication Patterns Worksheet (Appendix D) provides a model that can be adapted as necessary. The process observer should focus on the non-verbal as well as the verbal behavior of both the helper and helpee. This means writing down examples, as they occur, of obvious body talk and incongruities. (Recall Exercise 3 of Activity 2.) Attention should be given to qualities of eye contact, voice tones, facial expressions and posture. It is important to help the observers learn not to leap to conclusions with a single cause and effect statement, e.g. "He was nervous because his knees were crossed" or "She was bored because she yawned once." Ask the process observer to line up more evidence in a variety of areas before reaching any definitive conclusions. As process observers become more skilled the students become more attentive to responding to the non-verbals while in practice counseling sessions. The relation among the three modes becomes more obvious and students start responding to content, feelings and nonverbals.

2. The teacher should assign students to groups so that friends don't always stick together.

3. A triad could model for the entire class. It is often best for the teacher to act as the process observer for this group.

4. This is an appropriate time to introduce audio tape recording. The sessions can be taped simply to get used to the tape recorder. Often students will volunteer to let the class critique a tape.

Comments:

These exercises along with the round robin will be the major exercises for the course. Students will complain that "I've done that before." The point to make is that every new counseling session is different and calls for creativity in the counseling process. As the course progresses special attention should be given to the use of additive responses. Without their use the helping sessions often drag.

The criticalness of the activities involving the round robin, triads and dyads must be realized. This is the time students cross the line between artificial, plastic exercises and begin to experience the power of effective helping in real situations. . . addressing their own concerns. Learning under conditions of genuine role-taking. performing an important real task based on the need to empathize with another person as a means of promoting significant personal development is an extremely important concept. It is at this point in the training that training itself becomes less significant and personal education increases.

Activity 10C Description: Use of Active Listening in Interviews

Oftentimes the "problem" connotation of the helping process gets in the way of students seeing the general value of active listening as a communication skill. These more or less structured interviews employ the use of active listening in more general situations.

Exercise 1:

Open-ended questions and accurate reflection of feelings are used to help a person explore his life line. The life line is simply a chronology of a person's life. The person making the life line is to pick out perhaps ten significant life events from birth to present. The counselor goes over the life line with the person and uses open-ended questions and reflection of feeling to explore with the person his/her feeling about these events in his/her life.

Exercise 2:

In this exercise the helper has a series of questions that he gives to the person being interviewed. The interviewee picks from among the list and responds to the question. The interviewer then uses active listening to elicit as meaningful a response as possible. Examples of questions are as follows:

A. As you look back on your life, could you talk about one thing that you would do differently if you had it to do over again?

B. If you had one day in which you could do as you choose, what would that day be like?

C. If you could change any one thing about yourself, what would it be and why?

D. Tell about the most painful school day you can remember from kindergarten through high school.

Objectives:

1. To further develop reflection of feelings and open-ended questioning.
2. To see the value of active listening in interview situations.
3. To apply the active listening skills outside the classroom.
4. To get students to look at specific parts of their lives and reflect upon them.

Instructor's Role:

1. To help students know the details of constructing a life line.
2. To review the use of open-ended questions.
3. To create with the students a series of meaningful questions for use in the interview situation in Exercise 2.

Comments:

Both exercises should be used with other students in the class. However, this is an excellent time to have students use these skills with friends out of class, parents, brothers, sisters, and roommates.

12. Activity 11: Learning Active Listening Through Models

Rationale: This activity uses imitation or modeling to help students learn a helping skill. Both ineffective and effective helpers can be used, but the stress should be on effective models of facilitating communication.

Activity Description: Use of Models

Models can be shown through the use of various media: audio tape, video tape and movies.

Exercise 1:

This exercise uses audio tapes to show examples of facilitating and nonfacilitating responses. Counseling departments often have tape recordings of counseling sessions (either role play tapes or tapes of "old" and unidentifiable cases). Students can rate responses and point out examples of effective and ineffective responses. Audio tapes of students can also be used in the same way. For student tapes it is best to use volunteer tapes.

Exercise 2:

Video tapes can be used to model effective and ineffective helping. Again a counselor can model his skills in role play and real situations. Student video tapes can also be used. The obvious advantage of video tapes is the availability of nonverbal behaviors both on the part of the helper and the helpee.

Exercise 3:

Movies of expert counselors are an excellent resource for modeling helping skills. The film series "Three Approaches to Psychotherapy" are a little dated but still superb for use with students. In this series of interviews with Gloria, Carl Rogers demonstrates the focus on feelings, Albert Ellis the focus on content and Fritz Perls the focus on body language.

Objectives:

1. To improve helping skills through the use of modeling.

2. To demystify the helping process.

Instructor's Role:

1. The instructor should secure appropriate audio and video tapes and films.

2. Great care should be taken when student audio and video tapes are used as models. Stress the positive instances of facilitating behavior.

3. The instructor should make certain the the privacy of helpee and helper is protected when using media for modeling.

4. The instructor can stop the tapes and films to have students rate responses, to demonstrate a point or to elicit a response to a statement and compare that response to the model's response.

5. The following writing assignment can be used after the film "Three Approaches to Psychotherapy."

Write a reaction paper (2-3 pages) comparing Rogers, Perls and Ellis. Again, the paper may take almost any format that best fits the method of description and examination of the issues.

1. Gloria summed it up that Rogers responded to her emotions, Ellis to her mind, and Perls to her as a person. You might start by explaining in your own words what she meant by this.

2. Also you could comment on your own reactions to her choices at the end -- surprise, disbelief, dismay -- that she chose Perls!

3. You might also comment on how complete are any of the single communication systems depicted in the films. For example, is it complete just to focus on content (Ellis), feelings (Rogers), or body language (Perls)? Is it possible to consider a "super-gestalt" of communicating in all three basic modes? Can a person learn to accurately identify content, feelings and body langauge simultaneously (or is it like a three ring circus!)? And further, can a person learn not only to identify in the three areas but also to respond accurately?

13. Activity 12: Multiple Causation

Rationale: Human behavior is very complex with no simple cause and effect relationship. There is usually no simple single reason why people behave as they do. We see a behavior but the motive must usually be inferred. Thus people in helping relationships must form tentative hypotheses about reasons why people do what they do.

Activity Description: Multiple Causation

A number of situations are described below. Groups of 3-4 students are to work on the possible reasons for the indicated behavior. Groups can role play the situation if they choose. After groups have finished, each group reports back to the total class. This activity also presents an opportune time to discuss the difference between what one observes and what one infers from observations. This important distinction is briefly discussed in the module on "Formal Observation of Students' Social Behavior" (by F. Wood) in this series.

Multiple Causation

What Could Have Caused These Behaviors?

Student/Teacher

1. Student saunters into class, throws books down on desk, turns abruptly and sits down. He/she doesn't look at anyone the whole hour.
2. Teacher doesn't respond to student's question.
3. Teacher offers to help student with work but student turns away and says "No" -- I don't need any help."

Student/Parent

4. Student yells, "But I _did_ clean my room! Don't you ever see _anything_ I do?"
5. When student asks parent's permission to use the car, the parent does not look up from the newspaper but yells out, "No! Now leave me alone!"
6. Parent asks student to shovel the driveway and student groans and walks out the door.

Student/Student

7. Student A grabs math assignment from B and starts copying.
8. A is waiting outside the building and trips B when he'she walks out the door.

9. Student A is on crutches. As he is going downstairs he stumbles and sprawls, his books tumbling to the bottom of the stairs. Student B rushes up and starts to lift A up. A shrugs violently and says, "Leave me alone!"

Friend/Friend

10. A says, "Sorry -- I can't talk to you now" when B calls with something important to talk about. (Or, read "Your friend says 'Sorry' when you call with something important to talk about.")

11. A tells B a "confidential secret" which A and C had. (Or, "Your friend tells someone else a secret you and your friend had.")

12. Your friend says he/she can't go to a show with you, and then you see them there later with someone else.

Anyone/Anyone

13. You say hello to a stranger and they look the other way.

14. You ask for information on how to get somewhere and you get a cold stare.

15. Someone drops a cup of hot coffee on your table and some of it spills on your lap -- they don't say anything, but leave.

Objectives:

1. To show students the great number of possible causes of a behavior.

2. To reinforce the need to be flexible and cautious in inferring motives from behaviors.

Instructor's Role:

1. To form the small groups.

2. To handle the discussion in the total group.

14. Activity 13: Focused feedback

Rationale: Because of the importance of focused feedback in developing the skills used in the helping relationship a special section will be devoted to the elements of this process. This is an activity to be used by the instructor in critiquing the counseling skills of the student. The basic principles apply whether the session is live or on audio or video tape.

Focused Feedback

Once the pupils in the training groups reach the point of genuine helping, the instructor essentially assumes the role of a supervisor. After each counseling dialogue (a 10-15 minute in-class session, or play back on audio or video tape), the instructor helps to point out the positive and negative aspects of these real dialogues. It is important in these supervision sessions to be relatively specific. The feedback and de-briefing should be focused on a few elements. If, for example, in a 10-minute tape the helping person manages only one response to feeling, the supervisor can focus on that one response, play it back a few times and compare it to a content response, helping to make the obvious point.

Fred Stoller (1965) has pointed out the importance of "focused video feedback" in therapeutic work with video tapes. Although Dr. Stoller's research was in group psychotherapy, there are clear implications for education in the assertions he makes regarding the use of video input.

"Focused feedback" means that the discussion leader (student or instructor) focuses the student's attention on a single dimension of his behavior. Experience in using focused feedback agrees with the generlizations made by Ivey (1971). He states that even though "this approach (focused feedback) divides communication and teaching into specific dimensions, these dimensions are related and improvement in one area brings improvement in other areas as well" (Ivey, 1971, p. 83). One should always resist the temptation to try to remake the student all at once.

In general it is preferable to say to the student, "We do not expect you to make a facilitating response each time. We only want to see improvement in this one area." Not only does htis reassure the student, but he or she is also gratified to see improvement in this specific area. Whereas if all skills were stressed at once, improvement might be painfully slow or indeed too overwhelming. Stressing a single skill and downplaying or omitting reference to other problems often results in improvement in other areas which have been ignored. Experience has suggested that using the video tape feedback model with specific skills during the first month or so of the course greatly enhances the student's ability to see him or her self as other do and to move beyond the singular focus of negative self-evaluation or excessive self-criticism.* This practice of counseling analysis through focused feedback also sets the stage for the final phase of the training, to extend the helping process on a broad basis to the school and community. The feedback seminars also represent an opportunity to discuss some general issues on the general nature of the helping relationship.

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*The above section on feedback was developed by Raymond Almeida for the project in psychological education in the Minneapolis schools.

Activity 14A Description: Popular Psychology Literature

A library of popular readings can be used to illustrate some obvious point(s) about helping, communicating and counseling. These readings can vary from somewhat simple and perhaps melodramatic accounts (Go Ask Alice is an example of a lonely and empty teenager on drugs) to other rather sophisticated accounts of significant helping relationships (I Never Promised You a Rose Garden or Dibs). In general by maintaining a reasonable array of such books, the students can be encouraged to try out a series of different styles and levels and can get some insight into human behavior. Also it is important to prepare question guides which provide some structure. For example in the case of Dibs the student could be asked to examine the therapist's skill in reading the young "Dibs'" non-verbals . . . How does she pick up meaning from Dibs' activities? How does she let him know she understands what he's saying nonverbally? How does she show helping and caring? Compare how Dibs gets along with his parents, with some teachers, with the gardener? Is there any similarity between the therapist and the gardener?

A bibliography appears in Appendix G which is a brief listing of novels and other accounts which can form a partial library of "popular psychology literature."

Activity 14B Description: Journal, Magazine Articles

Throughout a course such as this certain issues will need clarification. For instance some students may want to know more about Ellis's Rational Emotive Therapy or Perl's Gestalt Therapy. Structured question sheets can be used to focus the student's approach. Some articles or books that have been used are:

1. The Risks in Effective Communication by Thomas Gordon (this is included in Appendix E).
2. Characteristics of A Helping Relationship by Carl Rogers. (Appendix C)
3. "The No Cop-Out Therapy" by Albert Ellis in Psychology Today, July, 1973.
4. "Nonverbal Communication: How We Send Emotional Messages" by E. Beier in Psychology Today, October, 1974.
5. "The Universal Smile: Face Muscles Talk Every Language" by Paul Ekman, Psychology Today, September, 1975.
6. Gestalt Therapy Verbatim by Fritz Perls (1972).

Activity 14C Description: I Messages

This activity is the other side of the communication coin of active listening. Active listening is used when the other person has the problems and you want to be the helper. The "I message" is used when you own the problem, when your needs are interfered with, and want to modify someone else's unacceptable behavior.

The following highlights the basic differences between "I messages" and active listening:

Characteristics of Responding

When Other Owns the Problem	When I Own the Problem
I'm a listener	I'm a sender
I'm a counselor	I'm an influencer
I want to help the other	I want to help myself
I'm a sounding board	I want to sound off
I facilitate other finding his own solution	I need a solution myself
I can accept the other's solution. I don't need to be satisfied.	I must be satisfied with the solution
I'm primarily interested in the other's needs	I'm primarily interested in my needs
I'm more passive	I'm more aggressive

Three criteria for evaluating methods of influencing another to modify his behavior:

1. It must be effective at producing helpful change.
2. It must have low risk of lower other's self-esteem.
3. It must have low risk of hurting the relationship.

The "I message" consists of three parts:

1. Describes other's behavior in non-blameful way.
2. Describes tangible effects on you now or in the future.
3. Describes your emotions as a result of that effect(s).

Exercise 1:

After teaching the basic concepts associated with "I messages" have students construct "I messages" for the following situations:

A. You teach full-time, as does your husband. Although you usually spend all day Saturday and sometimes part of Sunday cleaning, washing, etc., your husband has never offered to help, but usually plays golf or watches sporting events on TV each weekend.

B. A student frequently comes to you to tell you of his distress over difficulties with other teachers in the school. At first you were interested and wanted to be facilitating, but it has gone on and on to the point where you are now bored, restless, and convinced that the student really just wants an adult who will listen to his criticisms of teachers.

C. Smith, one of your co-teachers, has suddenly taken to arriving late several mornings a week. Today he has arrived 35 minutes after expected arrival time, leaving you and other teachers in charge of monitoring his students as they arrive at school.

D. You like your roommate very much but she (he) is constantly emptying ashtrays, putting newspapers in the garbage before you are finished, flicking specks of dust off the coffee table, straightening up your bedroom, etc.

Exercise 2:

In this exercise have each student role play (in dyads) two situations and in one case have the responder use "you messages" and in the other case "I messages." Process the experience with the total group.

Exercise 3:

Have the students use "I messages" with a real life situation out of class and have them report back on the results.

Activity 14D Description: I Am Loving and Capable

The I Am Loving and Capable (IALAC) activity consists of reading a story about a boy's day that did not go well. The point of the story is how we can put down (tear down a person's esteem or sign) or build up people in our daily interactions. Students can keep a record of the impact of their interactions for a particular day. Have them keep records in two ways -- how they have their sign built up or torn down and what they do to other people's sign. Some students even wear a sign made of paper and they can tear off a piece or put a piece back depending upon the interaction. The (IALAC) story is available in booklet form from Argus Communications, 7440 Natchez Avenue, Niles, Illinois 60648. The author is Sidney Simon.

15. Reinforcing Activities

Rationale: This section lists some activities that have been used with various tryouts of the course. Instructors may select from these activities depending upon the appropriateness for the particular class and the time available. A note of caution, however! Research has indicated that many skill training programs remain essentially just that, the rote learning of a few skills emitted upon demand in the training sessions. When tested under real conditions such training fails to transfer, fading like an old catechism. It is therefore critical that the students actually employ the skills in dealing with real problems to insure some measure of transfer and generalization from training. Thus whatever skill training package an instructor uses, he/she must give special attention to this internalization phase. There is a tendency

> *in some skill programs to simply continue to add on more human affec*tive exercises in a continual sequence and never really get down to using the skills to solve real problems. In some ways it is attractive at this point in training to continue to add in more exercises. The difficulty here is perhaps ironically obvious. The continued use of one exercise after another actually enhances passivity on the part of the student. They soon sit back and wait for the teacher to reach into the bag of tricks and produce further stimulation. Thus such exercises should be employed only long enough to provide skills to start responding to real concerns.

Phase Two: Skill Training Procedures

The elements of counseling skill training usually focus on at least three aspects, learning to accurately respond to the content of a message, to the feelings attached to a message and to the non-verbal dimensions. The first aspect can be considered the denotative, the second the connotative and third the body language elements of meaning. These form the triad around which communication skill instruction is organized.

Programs tend to use a relatively high structure in the initial phase of skill training. There may be some feeling that the approach tends to resemble a paint-by-numbers method and as a result is too artificial and "plastic." Experience, however, has shown it is best for the teacher to explain at the outset that the training phase will seem awkward yet it is necessary to begin in such a simple-minded way. Recently many professional training programs in counseling and teaching have shifted more to this high structure mode. Both Allen Ivey's Micro Counseling (1972) and Joyce's work (1978) illustrate the point. A complex process such as teaching and/or counseling can be effectively taught by breaking the process into a series of components or "Micro" units. This gives the learner the opportunity to master an element at a time and develop an experience base for a particular aspect before moving to another portion. In such human interaction skills this does approach a mastery learning model. The person can practice to the point of success. Naturally some might say that this approach is not "holistic" enough or that a gestalt is critically missing or that it will promote mechanical/technical competence but yet miss the essential humaneness. The micro-approach, however, can be employed to aid the learner to master the specific elements and lead to the essential process of effective helping. The skills can be used to deliberately broaden the experience-table of the learner in that new channels of interaction and broadened systems for understanding other people can accumulate. Thus the skill elements increase the repertoire within each person in providing a broader base upon which to interact with another person. This is obviously an important instructional goal of the skill training units -- that the pupil get past the mechanical aspects and internalize the skill elements into a genuinely humane set of helping responses appropriate to each living situation.

The following activities of this section are a series of possible "Micro" methods for communication skill training. There are two basic aspects to be accomplished through these exercises: 1) learning to identify and recognize a communication message and 2) learning to respond accurately. The learning sequence may be thought of as involving the following elements:

1. Concentrating intensely on verbal and nonverbal behavior.
2. Recognizing an interchangeable response both in content and feeling.
3. Formulating an interchangeable response that paraphrases the content and reflects the feeling.
4. Formulating the response in appropriate language with the tone analogous to that of helpee.
5. Formulating higher level (additive responses) which are tentative.
6. Being cognizant of what is not expressed. Knowing and responding to significant helpee omission can be means to higher level empathy.
7. Proceeding from didactic to experiential, from role play to real issues, from exploration to awareness to action.

One Final Note on the Course

The course outlined above is just one of many possibilities for introducing future teachers to the skills of interpersonal communication that have been generally limited to counselor training programs. Today many professionals have become convinced that the most effective way of providing counseling is to put counseling skills in the hands of people in settings with intense levels of interpersonal contact. Certainly no group as a whole, save perhaps parents, has a better opportunity to function in a counseling role than do teachers. Therefore, it certainly makes sense to attempt to teach future teachers certain basic, and effective, counseling skills as part of a regular teacher education program.

We hope that this module will be seen as a useful model for a counseling skills program. We urge colleagues to pick and choose and supplement its contents as they feel appropriate. What is most important to us is that teachers enter the schools ready and able to fulfill the role of counselor, as well as teacher.

V. Evaluation of the Program

The objectives of the course outlined on this module include both skill development and psychological or personal growth. These objectives are viewed as interactive, that is, as the exercises in this type of course focus on one of the objectives, they simultaneously aid in realizing the other. A report of an evaluation of this curriculum (Oja & Sprinthall) is attached.

Skill development can be measured in several ways. The most common method we have used is the ten-item Porter Communication Procedures Inventory (Porter, 1950). A copy of this inventory is included in Appendix F. The inventory has been given as a pre- and post-test. The percentage of responses in each category (evaluative, interpretive, supportive, probing and understanding) are compared from pre-test to post-test. The typical response pattern on students we have tested has looked like this:

Type of Response	% Response (Pre)	% Responses (Post)
Evaluative	30-35	8-15
Interpretive	8-15	15-20
Supportive	20-30	8-15
Probing	13-20	7-15
Understanding	15-20	45-55

Skill development can also be measured by having students respond to a role-play pupil on video tape. A video tape is made of a pupil providing a series of statements about his or her problem with a pause between. Students respond to each set of statements with a written response that can be rated on the 5-point active listening scale.

General class evaluations can be drawn from journal comments, questionnaires or open-ended questions. For example the following questions could be used:

THOUGHT SHEET

Please answer these questions on a separate piece of paper:

1. People are ever-changing. In what ways have *you* changed since this class started?
2. How have your personal relationships changed? Describe two.
3. What insights do you now have into other people's behavior? What insights do you now have about your own behavior?
4. How do you think other people perceive you?
5. If you were the instructor what would you have done differently?
6. What are your feelings toward the other students in the class?
7. Have your attitudes toward the role of a teacher changed because of this class?
8. Have you been influenced in how you will interact with students once you begin teaching?
9. Other comments, please.

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Film Reference

"Three Approaches to Psychotherapy" Parts I, (Rogers) II, (Ellis) and III, (Perls). E. E. Shostram, 1965. B/W Available from many university film libraries.

Appendices

A. Use of a Journal and Vocabulary of "Feeling Words."

B. "How to Read Body Language" Davis (1969)

C. "Barriers and Gateways to Communication" (Rogers, 1952)

D. Analysis of Communication Patterns

E. "Risks in Effective Communication" (Gordon, 1961)

F. Communication Procedures Inventory (Porter, 1950)

G. Bigliography -- "Popular" books

APPENDIX A

Use of Journal

Keeping a Journal is More Than Just Writing a Diary

Your journal will be a record of your experience of this course -- a record of your thoughts and feelings, your analysis and your dreams. This journal is your property and its primary function is to help you to develop and grow. If you do not want to share a journal entry, tape the pages together.

Why keep a journal?

By keeping a record of your actions and reactions, you'll be able to see what you've done during this course and how you've grown.

By recording observations you will begin to notice patterns in human behavior.

By noting the activities you plan and carry out, you'll be able to see what things make relationships work and how they are different from those things that worsen relationships.

How to write your journals?

There are many ways to keep a journal. In this class we will ask you to do certain structured assignments and to staple these into your journal. Also we ask that you use a particular type of format in your journals. It is a three-step process in which you:

1. DESCRIBE WHAT IS HAPPENING, i.e. relate just the facts or behavior, e.g., John keeps interrupting me everytime I start to answer a question.

2. REACT TO THIS BEHAVIOR, i.e., describe what you are feeling, gut level response is, e.g., John's interruption makes me feel angry at him.

3. REFLECT ON THIS BEHAVIOR-REACTION, i.e., think about if the reaction is appropriate, consider why you react this way, speculate on John's behavior meaning something else, think about how you can change the situation, e.g., I'm angry at John because he wouldn't let me finish and this makes me feel as if I'm not important enough to be heard . . . or . . . Maybe I'm over reacting, maybe John's so excited about his topic that he can't wait for any reply.

If you use this particular format it will help in your reflections, help your organization, and help you in developing your interpersonal skills.

We also have one more request: that you reread and review your journal every three weeks and summarize what happened in those three weeks and reflect on what this means to you.

Contents of Journal

Analysis of experience
- reaction to experiences
- making connections
- conclusions or speculations

1. comments on reading
2. reactions to reading
3. reactions to setting
4. feelings
5. important to make connections between what they are reading and hearing and what is actually happening in placement situations
6. reading list/resource material
7. narrative of experiences/activities

Function of Journal

To help student internalize experience

To be useful to others - faculty/advisor/agency to help analyze student's experience

Other students as resource material

Procedure/Evaluation of Journal

1. Consult carefully with instructor/advisor
2. Pre-determine format, criteria, contents
3. As part of field service time commitment plan time to make notes at end of each session
4. Keep journal up to date.
5. Check journal early in quarter with instructor (or person designated by instructor)
6. Set criteria for journal evaluation with instructor, also whoever else will evaluate journal -- advisor, peer or co-workers, self-evaluation, etc. (If someone at agency be sure they agree to this and know form of evaluation written, oral, other . . .)
7. Also clarify how the journal will be used in student evaluation

Form

Discuss with instructor, he/she may have special requirements.

In general:

1. Each entry (day, session) should include goals, narrative of activities, evaluation or analysis -- distinction between objective and subjective contents should be clear
2. This part of the journal should be concise -- narrative of activities should include highlights and relevant anecdotes
3. Other relevant material (lesson plans, detailed lists of materials or activities, examples of work produced, pictures, tapes, etc.) should be attached to supplement text

Other: Students should remember that journal may be seen by many people. Criticism should be as fair as possible.

Log Books as Evaluation Aids

Log books, simply put, are diaries in which the students record their course-relevant experiences. The possible uses of such information are numerous: 1) log books can be used by program teachers to monitor the progress of students in attaining their individual course objectives; 2) log book information could, with undetermined reliability and validity however, serve as the basis for assigning grades; 3) log book data could be used by program personnel to determine the type and range of experiences which students encountered in a relatively unstructured learning situation; and 4) the log books could be used as part of a comprehensive evaluation of course experiences and of the overall programs approach.

Some problems are encountered in the use of log books. First, unless completion of a log book is mandatory, few students will record their experiences. Second, students must be encouraged to record their experiences each day rather than describing activities weekly or bi-weekly. Third, the students must feel free to record and evaluate their experiences as honestly as possible. Fourth, the students must understand the task well enough, which requires a certain amount of structuring concerning the types of information to be included in the log book, to be able to complete the log book without a great amount of stress.

The log book approach can serve as the basis for the student's recording and self-evaluation of what he/she has done. After being used by program personnel the log books could be returned to the students so that the log book information could be used when individuals resume their classroom teaching roles.

Notes to Instructor

Whatever format is used it is helpful to structure questions, especially at the outset. Some students start right out with good, elaborate and insightful writings. Most, however, need considerable help to develop the reflective skills. By posing some open-ended questions the students can be helped to think about some of the helping issues from a variety of perspectives. Also it is important not to grade their work by spelling, punctuation and syntax, etc. Rather an instructor can encourage elaboration by responding to the written journals on a regular basis by employing the equivalent of a level 3 to 4 clarifying questions to the student journals.

A List of Feeling Words*

It will be noted that the words (in the list reprinted here) are divided into various subgroups. These are rather arbitrary categories set up to permit more rapid localization of a word on the list. Because of their arbitrary nature, the value of these subcategories for any other purpose is questionable.

UNHAPPINESS
blue
bad
dejected
depressed
despondent
disappointed
discouraged
dismal
distressed
gloomy
miserable
mournful
sad
sorry
sullen
unhappy

PERSONAL WORTH
conceited
good
important
needed
proud
worthy

DISORGANIZATION
amazed
astonished
baffled
bewildered
confused
dismayed
disorganized
distressed
dizzy
foggy
fuzzy
light headed
mixed up
perplexed
puzzled
shocked
surprised
torn up
uncertain
unsure

IMPATIENCE
dissatisfied
fed up
frustrated
impatient
restless

LIKING
admired
appreciated
affection
cared
craving
desiring
friendly
liked
interested
loved
preferred
respected
wanted

EMPATHY
empathizing
pitying
sympathetic

DISLIKING
antagonistic
bitter
contemptuous
despised
detesting
disdainful
disgusted
hating
hostile
loathing
resentful
vengeful

WORRY
alarmed
bothered
concerned
disturbed
doubting
suspicious
troubled
worried

HAPPINESS
amused
cheerful
delightful
enjoying
gay
glad
grateful
gratified
happy
joyful
jolly
pleased

ANGER
aggravated
angered
annoyed
exasperated
furious
indignant
infuriated
ired
irked
mad
provoked
resentful

TIREDNESS
apathetic
bored
exhausted
fatigued
indifferent
lazy
lethargic
listless
sleepy
tired
wearied
worn out

STRENGTH
brave
capable
competent
confident
courageous
hopeful
independent
secure
strong

WEAKNESS
awed
bashful
dependent
helpless
hopeless
inadequate
inferior
inhibited
impotent
shy
timid
trapped
weak

ENERGETIC
alert
alive
eager
enthusiastic
excited
inspired
optimistic
peppy
wide awake

JEALOUSY
envious
jealous

FEAR
afraid
apprehensive
dreading
fearful
frightened
horrified
panicky
scared
terrified

GUILT
ashamed
embarrassed
guilty
humiliated
regretting
shameful

ANXIETY
anxious
moody
nervous
on edge
tense
upset

COMFORT
at ease
calm
comfortable
contented
peaceful
pleased
relaxed
satisfied
untroubled

DISCOMFORT
discontented
self-conscious
uncomfortable
unpleasant

REJECTION
loneliness
rejected
unloved

ACCEPTANCE
accepted
consoled
loved
wanted

WORTHLESSNESS
useless
unimportant
worthless

PATIENCE
patient
resigned

DETERMINATION
certain
determined
sure

OTHERS
anticipating
cynical
sensitive
sick
tempted
reluctant

PAIN
hurt

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*Source: Gazda

APPENDIX B

How to Read Body Language

By Flora David
Glamour Magazine, September 1969
Conde NAST Publications, Inc.

. . . Only a small part of the message comes across in words. Often the most interesting material gets there faster.

All of us communicate with one another nonverbally, as well as with words. Most of the time we're not aware that we're doing it. We gesture with eyebrows or a hand, meet someone else's eyes and look away, shift positions in a chair. These actions we assume are random and incidental. But researchers have discovered in recent years that there is a system to them almost as consistent and comprehensible as language.

Every culture has its own body language, and children absorb its nuances along with spoken language. A Frenchman talks and moves in French. The way an Englishman crosses his legs is nothing like the way a male American does it. In talking, Americans are apt to end a statement with a droop of the head or hand, a lowering of the eyelids. They wind up a questions with a lift of the hand, a tilt of the chin, or a widening of the eyes. With a future-tense verb they often gesture with a forward movement.

There are regional idioms too: an expert can sometimes pick out a native of Wisconsin just by the way he uses his eyebrows during conversation. Your sex, ethnic background, social class and personal style all influence your body language. Nevertheless, you move and gesture with the American idiom.

The person who is truly bilingual is also bilingual in body language. New York's famous mayor, Fiorello La Guardia, politicked in English, Italian, and Yiddish. When films of his speeches are run without sound, it's not too difficult to identify from his gestures the language he was speaking. One of the reason English-dubbed foreign films often seem flat is that the gestures don't match the language.

Usually, the wordless communication acts to qualify the words. What the nonverbal elements express very often, and very efficiently, is the emotional side of the message. When a person feels liked or disliked, often it's a case of "not what he said but the way he said it." Psychologist Albert Mehrabian has devised this formula: total impact of a message = 7 percent verbal + 38 percent vocal + 55 percent facial. The importance of the voice can be seen when you consider that even the words "I hate you" can be made to sound seductive.

Experts in kinesics -- the study of communication through body movement -- are not prepared to spell out a precise vocabulary of gestures. When an American rubs his nose, it may mean he is disagreeing with someone or rejecting something. But there are other possible interpretations, too. Another example: when a student in conversation with a professor holds the older man's eyes a little longer than is usual, it can be a sign of respect and affection; it can be a subtle challenge to the professor's authority; or it can be something else entirely. The expert looks for patterns in the context, not for an isolated meaningful gesture.

Kinesics is a young science -- about 17 years old -- and very much the brainchild of one man, anthropologist Dr. Ray L. Birdwhistell. But it already offers a smorgasbord of small observations. (For example: eyebrows have a repertoire of about 23 possible positions; men use their eyebrows more than women do.) Most people find they can shut out conversation and concentrate on watching body language for only about 30 seconds at a time. Anyone can experiment with it, however, simply by turning on the television picture without the sound.

One of the most potent elements in body language is eye behavior. Americans are careful about how and when they meet one another's eyes. In our normal conversation, each eye contact lasts only about a second before one or both individuals look away. When two Americans look searchingly into each other's eyes, emotions are heightened and the relationship tipped toward greater intimacy. Therefore, we scrupulously avoid this, except in appropriate circumstances.

Americans abroad sometimes find local eye behavior hard to interpret. "Tel Aviv was disturbing," one man recalled. "People stared right at me on the street; they looked me up and down. I kept wondering if I was uncombed or unzipped. Finally, a friend explained that Israelis think nothing of staring at others on the street."

Proper street behavior in the United States requires a nice balance of attention and inattention. You are supposed to look at a passerby just enough to show that you're aware of his presence. If you look too little, you appear haughty or furtive; too much and you're inquisitive. Usually, what happens is that people eye each other until they are about eight feet apart, at which point both cast down their eyes. Sociologist Dr. Erving Goffman describes this as "a kind of dimming of lights." In parts of the Far East it is impolite to look at the other person at all during conversation. In England the polite listener fixed the speaker with an attentive stare and blinks his eyes occasionally as a sign of interest. That eye-blink says nothing to Americans, who expect the listener to nod or to murmur something -- such as "mmhmm."

There are times when what a person says with his body give the lie to what he is saying with his tongue. Sigmund Freud once wrote: "No mortal can keep a secret. If his lips are silent, he chatters with his fingertips; betrayal oozes out of him at every pore."

Thus, a man may successfully control his face, and appear calm, self-controlled -- unaware that signs of tension and anxiety are leaking out, that his foot is beating the floor constantly, restlessly, as if it had a life of its own. Rage is another emotion feet and legs may reveal. During arguments the feet often tense up. Fear sometimes produces barely perceptible running motions -- a kind of nervous leg jiggle. Then there are the subtle, provocative leg gestures that women use, consciously and unconsciously.

Recent studies by psychologists suggest that posture often reflects a person's attitude toward people he is with. One experiment indicates that when men are with other men who they dislike, they relax either very little, or very much -- depending on whether they see the other man as threatening. Women in this experiment always signaled dislike with very relaxed posture. And men, paired with women they disliked, were never up-tight enough about it to sit rigidly.

Congruent postures sometimes offer a guide to broad relationships within a group. Imagine that at a party, guests have been fired up by an argument over student radicalism. You may be able to spot at a glance the two sides of the argument by postures adopted. Most of the pros, for example, may sit with crossed knees, the cons with legs stretched out and arms folded. A few middle-of-the-roaders may try a little of each -- crossing their knees and folding their arms. If an individual abruptly shifts his body around in his chair, it may mean that he disagrees with the speaker or even that he is changing sides. None of this, of course, represents an infallible guide, but is apparently significant enough to be worth watching for.

While children learn spoken and body language -- proper gestures, eye behaviors, etc. -- they also learn a subtler thing: how to react to space around them. Man walks around inside a kind of private bubble, which represents the amount of air space he feels he must have between himself and other people. Anthropologists, working with cameras, have recorded the tremors and minute eye movements that betray the moment the individual's bubble is breached. As adults, however, we hide our feelings behind a screen of polite words.

Anthropologist Dr. Edward T. Hall points out that, for two unacquainted adult male North Americans, the comfortable distance to stand for private conversation is from arm's length to about four feet apart. The South Americans like to stand much closer, which creates problems when the two meet face to face. For, as the South American moves in, the North American feels he's being pushy, and as the North American backs off, the South American thinks he's being standoffish.

The American and the Arab are even less compatible in their space habits. Arabs thrive on close contact. In some instances, they stand very close together to talk, staring intently into each other's eyes and breathing into each other's face. These are actions the American may associate with sexual intimacy and he may find it disturbing to be subjected to them in a nonsexual context.

The amount of space a man needs is also influenced by his personality -- introverts, for example, seem to need more elbow room than extroverts. Situation and mood also reflect distance. Moviegoers waiting in line to see a sexy film will queue up much more densely than those waiting to see a family entertainment movie.

George du Maurier once wrote: "Language is a poor thing. You fill your lungs with wind and shake a little slit in your throat and make mouths, and that shakes the air; and the air shakes a pair of little drums in my head . . . and my brain seizes your meaning in the rough. What a roundabout way and what a waste of time."

Communication between human beings would be just that dull if it were all done with words. But actually, words are often the smallest part of it.

APPENDIX C

Barriers and Gateways to Communication

By Carl R. Rogers

It may seem curious that a person like myself, whose whole professional effort is devoted to psychotherapy, should be interested in problems of communication. What relationship is there between obstacles to communication and providing therapeutic help to individuals with emotional maladjustments?

Actually the relationship is very close indeed. The whole task of psychotherapy is the task of dealing with a failure in communication. The emotionally maladjusted person, the "neurotic," is in difficulty, first, because communication within himself has broken down, and secondly, because as a result of this his communication with others has been damaged. To put it another way, in the "neurotic" individual, parts of himself which have been termed unconscious, or repressed, or denied to awareness, become blocked off so that they no longer communicate themselves to the conscious or managing part of himself; as long as this is true, there are distortions in the way he communicates himself to others, and so he suffers both within himself and in his interpersonal relations.

The task of psychotherapy is to help the person achieve, through a special relationship with a therapist, good communication within himself. Once this is achieved, he can communicate more freely and more effectively with others. We may say then that psychotherapy is good communication, within and between men. We may also turn that statement around and it will still be true. Good communication, free communication, within or between men, is always therapeutic.

It is, then, from a background of experience with communication in counseling and psychotherapy that I want to present two ideas; (1) I wish to state what I believe is one of the major factors in blocking or impeding communication, and then (2) I wish to present what in our experience has proved to be a very important way of improving, facilitating communication.

Barrier: The Tendency to Evaluate

I should like to propose, as a hypothesis for consideration, that the major barrier to mutual interpersonal communication is our very natural tendency to judge, to evaluate, to approve (or disapprove) the statement of the other person or the other group. Let me illustrate my meaning with some very simple examples. Suppose someone, commenting on this discussion, makes the statement, "I didn't like what that man said." What will you respond? Almost invariably your reply will be either approval or disapproval of the attitude expressed. Either you respond, "I didn't either, I thought it was terrible" or else you tend to reply, "Oh, I thought it was really good." In other words, your primary reaction is to evaluate it from your point of view, your own frame of reference.

Or take another example. Suppose I say with some feeling, "I think the Republicans are behaving in ways that show a lot of good sound sense these days." What is the response that arises in your mind? The overwhelming likelihood is that it will be evaluative. In other words, you will find yourself agreeing or disagreeing or making some judgment about me such as "He must be a conservative" or "He seems solid in his thinking." Or let us take an illustration from the international scene. Russia says vehemently, "The treaty with Japan is a war plot on the part of the U.S." We rise as one person to say. "That's a lie."

This last illustration brings in another element connected with my hypothesis. Although the tendency to make evaluations is common in almost all interchange of language, it is very much heightened in those situations where feelings and emotions are deeply involved. So the stronger our feelings, the more likely it is that there will be no mutual element in the communication. There will be just two ideas, two feelings, two judgments, missing each other in psychological space.

I am sure you recognize this from your own experience. When you have not been emotionally involved yourself and have listened to a heated discussion, you often go away thinking, "Well, they actually weren't talking about the same thing." And they were not. Each was making a judgment, an evaluation, from his own frame of reference. There was really nothing which could be called communication in any genuine sense. This tendency to react to any emotionally meaningful statement by forming an evaluation of it from our own point of view is, I repeat, the major barrier to interpersonal communication.

Gateway: Listening with Understanding

Is there any way of solving this problem, of avoiding this barrier? I feel that we are making exciting progress toward this goal, and I should like to present it as simply as I can. Real communication occurs, and this evaluative tendency is avoided, when we listen with understanding. What does that mean? It means to see the expressed idea and attitude from the other person's point of view, to sense how it feels to him, to achieve his frame of reference in regard to the thing he is talking about.

Stated so briefly, this may sound absurdly simple, but it is not. It is an approach which we have found extremely potent in the field of psychotherapy. It is the most effective agent we know for altering the basic personality structure of an individual and for improving his relationships and his communications with others. If I can listen to what he can tell me, if I can understand how it seems to him, if I can see its personal meaning for him, if I can sense the emotional flavor which it has for him, then I will be releasing potent forces of change in him.

Again, if I can really understand how he hates his father, or hates the company, or hates Communists -- [illegible] can catch the flavor of his fear of insanty, or his fear of atom bombs, or of Russia -- it will be of the greatest help to him in altering those hatreds and fears and in establishing realistic and harmonious relationships with the very people and situations toward which he has felt hatred and fear. We know from our research that such empathetic understanding -- understanding with a person, not about him -- is such an effective approach that it can bring about major changes in personality.

Some of you may be feeling that you listen well to people and yet you have never seen such results. The chances are great indeed that your listening has not been of the type I have described. Fortunately, I can suggest a little laboratory experiment which you can try to test the quality of your understanding. The next time you get into an argument with your wife, or your friend, or with a small group of friends, just stop the discussion for a moment and, for an experiment, institute this rule: "Each person can speak up for himself only AFTER he has first restated the ideas and feelings of the previous speaker accurately and to that speaker's satisfaction."

You see what this would mean. It would simply mean that before presenting your own point of view, it would be necessary for you to achieve the other speaker's frame of reference -- to understand his thoughts and feelings so well that you could summarize them to him. Sounds simple, doesn't it? But if you try it, you will discover that it is one of the most difficult things you have ever tried to do. However, once you have been able to see the other's point of view, your own comments will have to be drastically revised. You will also find the emotion going out of the discussion, the differences being reduced, and those differences which remain being of a rational and understandable sort . . .

If, then, this way of approach is an effective avenue to good communication and good relationships, as I am quite sure you will agree if you try the experiment I have mentioned, why is it not more widely tried and used? I will try to list the difficulties which keep it from being utilized.

NEED FOR COURAGE. In the first place, it takes courage, a quality which is not too widespread. I am indebted to Dr. S. I. Hayakawa, the semanticist, for pointing out that to carry on psychotherapy in this fashion is to take a very real risk, and that courage is required. If you really understand another person in this way, if you are willing to enter his private world, and see the way life appears to him, without any attempt to make evaluative judgments, you run the risk of being changed yourself. You might see it his way; you might find yourself influenced in your attitudes or your personality.

The risk of being changed is one of the most frightening prospects many of us can face. If I enter, as fully as I am able, into the private world of a neurotic or psychotic individual, isn't there a risk that I might become lost in that world? Most of us are afraid to take that risk. Or if we were listening to a Russian Communist . . . how many of us would dare to try to see the world from his point of view? The great majority of us could not LISTEN, we would find ourselves compelled to EVALUATE, because listening would seem too dangerous. So the first requirement is courage, and we do not always have it.

HEIGHTENED EMOTIONS. But there is a second obstacle. It is just when emotions are strongest that it is most difficult to achieve the frame of reference of the other person or group. Yet it is then that the attitude is most needed if communication is to be established. We have not found this to be an insuperable obstacle in our experience in psychotherapy. A third party, who is able to lay aside his own feelings and evaluations, can assist greatly by listening with understanding to each person or group and clarifying the views and attitudes each holds.

We have found this effective in small groups in which contradictory or antagonistic attitudes exist. When the parties to a dispute realize that they are being understood, that someone sees how the situation seems to them, the statements grow less exaggerated and less defensive, and it is no longer necessary to maintain the attitude, "I am 100% right and you are 100% wrong." The influence of such an understanding catalyst in the group permits the members to come closer and closer to the objective truth involved in the relationship. In this way mutual communication is established and some type of agreement becomes much more possible.

Summary

In closing, I should like to summarize this small-scale solution to the problem of barriers in communication, and to point out certain of its characteristics.

I have said that our research and experience to date would make it appear that breakdowns in communication, and the evaluative tendency which is the major barrier to communication, can be avoided. The solution is provided by creating a situation in which each of the different parties comes to understand the other from the other's point of view. This has been achieved, in practice, even when feelings run high, by the influence of a person who is willing to understand each point of view empathetically, and who thus acts as a catalyst to precipitate further understanding.

This procedure has important characteristics. It can be initiated by one party, without waiting for the other to be ready. It can even be initiated by a neutral third person, provided he can gain a minimum of cooperation from one of the parties.

This procedure can deal with the insincerities, the defensive exaggerations, the lies, the "false fronts" which characterize almost every failure in communication. These defensive distortions drop away with astonishing speed as people find that the only intent is to understand, not to judge.

This approach leads steadily and rapidly toward the discovery of the truth, toward a realistic appraisal of the objective barriers to communication. The dropping of some defensiveness by one party leads to further dropping of defensiveness by the other party, and truth is thus approached.

This procedure gradually achieves mutual communication. Mutual communication tends to be pointed toward solving a problem rather than toward attacking a person or group. It leads to a situation in which I see how the problem appears to you as well as to me, and you see how it appears to me as well as to you. Thus accurately and realistically defined, the problem is almost certain to yield to intelligent attack; or if it is in part insoluble, it will be comfortably accepted as such.

This then appears to be a test-tube solution to the breakdown of communication as it occurs in small groups. Can we take this small-scale answer, investigate it further, refine it, develop it, and apply it to the tragic and well-nigh fatal failure of communication which threaten the very existence of our modern world? It seems to me that this is a possibility and a challenge which we should explore.

APPENDIX D

Analysis of Communication Patterns

Did the counselor:	YES or NO	COMMENTS	REACTION OF COUNSELEE
1. paraphrase the counselee's ideas, feelings in his own words?			
2. indicate approval?			
3. indicate disapproval?			
4. add meaning?			
5. subtract meaning?			
6. negotiate for meaning?			
7. use understandable and appropriate language?			
8. check his perceptions regarding the counselee's feelings?			
9. respond with appropriate depth?			
10. general congruence?			

OBSERVATION SHEET FOR INEFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

1. The receiver fails to listen to the message:

2. The receiver only listens to part of the message in order to say what he wants to say rather than respond fully to the message:

3. The receiver distorts the message to conform with his expectations of what he thought the sender was going to say:

4. The receiver is listening in order to make judgments and evaluations of the sender, thus making the sender defensive and guarded in formulating the message:

5. The receiver understood the words of the message but not the underlying meaning:

6. The sender used general pronouns and nouns to refer to how own feelings and ideas:

7. Other ineffective communication behaviors:

APPENDIX E

The Risks in Effective Communication[1]

Thomas Gordon

We hear and read much about the importance of effective communication but little about its risks. Social scientists tell us that effective communication is a characteristic of individuals who are "psychologicall healthy," of groups that function effectively, and of organizations that prosper and survive. As a consultant, involved with people's communication as I counsel with individuals, with face-to-face groups, or with large organizations, I have learned that if individuals, groups, or organizations are to become "psychologically healthy" or "fully-functioning" in order to use their resources effectively to reach their goals, they invariably must learn to communicate more adequately.

First, consider the importance of communication to the *individual*. The person who is psychologically healthy, according to many theorists, is one who is "in touch with himself." He is aware of his feelings, his attitudes, his values, and his beliefs. He is more in *communication with himself* than is the psychologically unhealthy person. The unhealthy who enter individual therapy to become more fully-functioning go through a process of learning to communicate with themselves. They gradually explore deeper and deeper into their feelings and attitudes, discovering new ones, finding feelings that conflict or feelings previously denied. Also, after completing successful psychotherapy, people report that having learned to "communicate better with themselves" they can now better communicate their real feelings and attitudes to others. Psychological health, for the individual, means the ability to "talk clearly with oneself."

Groups seem no different. The ineffective group is one whose members are not communicating *with one another*. Consequently, such groups cannot solve problems easily -- in fact, they find it difficult even to *identify* their real problems. These groups often have "hidden agendas" that never get communicated; their members withdraw into silence and passivity; or what does get communicated is often only superficial and meaningless. Groups that seek a consultant's help to become more effective, like individuals, go through a process of developing more effective communication. Gradually, when conflicts can be exposed, interpersonal hostilities come to the surface, creative thinking appears, basic issues can be identified, and decisions get made. Thus, group health, as well as individual health, seems to be brought about through learning more effective communication.

Communication is just as crucial for *organizations*. An eminent consultant once remarked, "I find that most problems of business and industrial organizations in the final analysis boil down to problems of communications." His view is shared by most organizational consultants, because so often they have found that helping an organization so often means breaking down the barriers to communication -- upward, downward, and sidewise. Documented reports of consulting effects that have been successful in bringing about constructive change in organizations contain numerous examples of the introduction of new methods and procedures for fostering better communication between the various parts of the organization. Likewise, the most successful management development or executive education programs in our country today are those providing training experiences that help the participants understand the dynamics of the communication process and acquire skills in interpersonal communications.

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[1] A shorter version of this paper has been published in the National Training Laboratory, Human Relations Training News, 1961, Vol. 4, No. 4.

If, then, it is true that effective communication is so important for individuals, groups, and organizations, we should be aware of the risks involved. These risks derive from the very nature of the communications process itself.

One way of looking at effective communication is to consider it a process involving two elements: (1) *Clear sending* (effective expression) and (2) *Accurate receiving* (effective impression). There is a different risk involved in each of these elements. If a person wants to learn both to send clear messages and to receive others' messages accurately, he must be prepared to take some real risks.

Let us first examine the element of risk in *clear sending*.

Many different factors affect whether or not a person sends clear messages. Some of these are rather obvious and need only brief mention here. For example, the sender has to talk loud enough to be heard. He also should code his message in words that are familiar to the receiver -- that is, the receiver has to know the sender's code. In addition, we know that a single message is usually easier to understand than several messages sent at once. A message can also get lost if the sender clutters up his communication with apologies, asides, parenthetical remarks, conditional statements, supporting data, illustrations, documentation or anecdotes.

Although these factors are important, they are not as crucial to their influence on "sending" as another less understood factor -- that is, the degree of "congruence" of the sender. Congruence refers to the similarity of what a person (the sender) is thinking or feeling, *inside*, and what he communicates to the *outside*. When a person is being congruent, we experience him as "open," "direct," "honest," or "genuine." When we sense that a person's communication is incongruent, we judge him as "not ringing true," "insincere," "affected," or just plain "phony." The human receiver apparently is a very sensitive judge of the degree of congruence in a sender.

Logically, it would follow that the greater the congruence between inner feeling and the actual message transmitted by a sender, the greater the chance of a receiver missing the message, or hearing an ambiguous message. The inconsistency between the words he receives and the other person's inner feelings (sensed from non-verbal clues from the sender) confuses the receiver. For example, a mother who *inside* is feeling rejecting, irritated, or unloving toward her child yet tries to communicate patience, permissiveness, and acceptance will send messages that are incongruent. The child usually perceives both the ambiguity of these messages and the insincerity of the mother.

Risks in Communication

The risk in being congruent in communication is simply that the sender becomes known to the receiver *as he really is* (inside). The sender exposes his true self -- he becomes transparently real to himself and to others. People must have courage to be what they are -- that is, to communicate what they feel and think as of a particular moment in their existence; for when a person does this -- and here is the risk -- he opens himself to others and their reactions to him. For a person to be congruent, then, means opening himself to be viewed by others.

His listeners learn how he really feels. If they are involved at all, they may or may not like to hear his feelings about them. We also know that honesty in communication puts a demand on the listener to be equally honest. Most people are threatened by such a demand. So some people are frightened away by congruence in another person. Here is an additional risk of clear sending.

Let's move now to a consideration of accurate receiving. What is meant by this, and what is the risk involved?

In recent years, psychotherapists have called our attention to a new kind of listening -- "active listening." More than passively attending to the message of the sender, it is a process of putting your understanding of that message to the severest of tests -- namely, forcing yourself to put into your own words the meaning of the sender's messages and "feeding back" your words to the sender for verification or for subsequent correction. Active listening obviously requires the receiver to suspend his own thoughts, feelings, evaluations, and judgments in order to attend exclusively to the message of the sender. It forces accurate receiving inasmuch as the listener finds that if he is to understand the message in terms of the sender's meaning, he must put himself into the shoes of the sender (into his frame of reference, into his world of reality). The listener thus hears the meaning intended by the sender. The "feedback" part of active listening is nothing more than the receiver's ultimate check on the accuracy of his listening, although it also assures the sender that he has been understood when he hears his own "message" fed back to him accurately.

Active listening, however, carries its own risks. Something happens to a person when he practices active listening. To understand accurately how another person thinks or feels from his point of view, to put yourself momentarily into his shoes, to see the world as he is seeing it -- you as a listener run the risk of having your own opinions and attitudes changed. In other words, people actually get changed by what they really understand. To be "open to the experience" of another invites the possibility of having to reinterpret your own experiences. The person who cannot listen to others is "defensive" and cannot afford to expose himself to ideas and views that are different from his own.

In summary, effective communication, requiring as it does both congruence (clear sending) and active listening (accurate receiving), carries two risks: the exposure of the way we really are and the possibility of becoming different. Few of us find it easy to take these risks. This is why effective interpersonal communication requires both inner security and personal courage.

APPENDIX F

Communication Procedures Inventory (Porter 1950)

Instructions: In this part of the test a series of excerpts from interviews are presented. Each excerpt is an expression by a client concerning an aspect of the situation he faces. Little or no information is given you about the nature of the person speaking. No further information on the case is available. You will not even know where in the course of the interview series the expression takes place. In brief, you are presented with isolated client expressions.

Following each such client statement is a series of five possible counselor responses. You are to select the one response which seems to you to be the most apt response you could make in reply to the client. Where no response seems best, select the response which best approximates the response you would like to see. Mark Your Answer on the Separate Answer Sheet.

1) Boy -- age 17

"I tell you I hate my father. I hate him! I hate him! I hate him! And there's no reason for it. He is a minister -- a good and righteous man. He has never laid a hand on me -- but I have this terrific feeling against him -- and it makes me feel so terrible because -- there is no reason for it. It's a sin to hate your father -- especially if you don't have any real reason for it. I -- it worries me."

1. Of course you feel guilty about hating him so, especially since you can't put your finger on what he has done to make you hate him. And then, too, even though you see only your hatred of him you'll find that underneath it all you have some love for him and this plays a part in your feelings of guilt.

2. I guess everyone at some time or another goes through a period when they hate one or both of their parents. It's really not at all uncommon. Most people find that they can work out some way of getting along until things settle down.

3. This is certainly something which you will want to get cleared up. Happy relationships with parents are too constructive a thing to a person, not only now at your age, but in the future as well, you won't want to jeopardize what it can mean to you.

4. It worries you that you should hate your father without reason and yet feel sinful for hating him.

5. I think we ought to get to the root of that worry. Tell me about your father; all about him. You say he's never laid a hand on you, but maybe he has not let you do a number of things you wanted to do. Can you think of anything along this line?

2) Girl -- age 16

"Oh, I couldn't work through my problem without help. You ask me questions and tell me -- because I wouldn't be able to -- honestly -- I haven't got any idea how to go about it. I don't want to -- it's like down at the office -- I can't go ahead on my own -- I just can't -- I want to be told -- then it's not my fault if things go wrong -- and they would go wrong -- because I don't know how things should be done, I feel so helpless."

1. You say it's not your fault if things go wrong even after you've been told what to do. Can you tell me what you mean there?

2. You feel that you just aren't capable of doing things unaided.

3. It's not really that you can't go ahead on your own -- it's just that you think you can't. That's one of the problems we can work on -- to build up your confidence in yourself.

4. Well, I could suggest some of the things you might talk about here in our interview and some of the things you might think about between interviews. I might also suggest some things for you to do about your office work that ought to make it a little easier for you.

5. You feel dependent upon someone else for nearly everything you do, don't you? And it probably makes you panicky when people throw you on your own, too. But when people tell you what to do you don't have to assume the real responsibility and hence it's not your fault if things go wrong -- they just didn't tell you enough.

3) Boy - age 16

"It's not that I don't want to do something about it -- I just -- well -- I know what I ought to do -- but some reason or other I just can't -- do a thing."

1. Maybe if we talked over what you've thought of doing, we could figure out what is best to do. It's possible that the answer is something new.

2. Let's try to get at what is behind this blocking. Tell me more about it.

3. Behind this blocked feeling you're experiencing is a conflict in your desires; you want to and you don't want to.

4. You're blocked by something and you don't kow what it is, is that what you're saying?

5. Are you sure you know what you ought to do? It seems to me that if you really had a clear idea of what you ought to do you'd be able to go ahead.

4) Fraternity Counselor: Hi, Ed. How'd the game with the upper classmen go?

Fraternity Student: Aw, to hell with 'em! Good Lord, I tried to do my best, but when Joe got so darned mad at me when I miscounted trumps it just made me -- well, I try -- I do try -- but when they as much as tell me that my best isn't good enough, it just points out to me more and more clearly that I'm just a sad sack.

Fraternity Counselor:

1. Look, Ed, have you ever just stopped to consider the source? Like the guy that got kicked in the face by the mule?
2. In other words, when someone attacks you, you tend to feel guilty about it.
3. In other words, when you did your best and he found fault, it tended to make you feel rather worthless.
4. Now look, my friend, if you're going to let something like that throw you, you are a sad sack, for sure.
5. Tell me, Ed, is it only in bridge games that you feel that way?

5) Student Activities Counselor: I wanted to talk with you, Sue, about the difficulties which seem to exist between your staff and the newspaper staff.

Student: Well, if you ask me, it's high time that pack of mutts got straightened out. Every time they print that sheet all they do is criticize. They run down every last thing we do. I've done everything I can do to work with them. They're so infernally superior. They ought to try to put a good foot forward for a change. But, I'll help in any way I can.

Student Activities Counselor:

1. I'd like to hear your side of the story completely. Want to tell me more about it?
2. What you say about them may be true, Sue, but let's remember that we've just got to work together in order to exist.
3. From the way you see it, I can understand how it would be very provoking.
4. From the way you see it, then, you're pretty well justified in feeling angry, but you're willing to help.
5. I gather you resent being made to feel inferior.

6) Faculty Counselor: Come in. What can I do for you?

Student: Dr. Allen, I'd like to get some help from you on my schedule for next winter quarter. I've talked with several people about what I ought to take but they all tell me different things and it's so hard for me to know what to choose. I'm only a freshman and I just don't know what is best, so I decided finally that I ought to come to someone who could give me some expert advice.

Faculty Counselor:

1. If I follow you correctly there, you feel pretty sure that this is something that requires outside help, it's something you can't decide for yourself.
2. Are you speaking now of what major field you want to get into, or what you are going to take for electives?
3. Well, now maybe if you depended a little more on yourself, on what you can do and what you want to do instead of what others say, you'd get along a little better.
4. I'm wondering there if your difficulty isn't more a matter of developing self-reliance than a matter of selecting courses.
5. Sure. I'd be glad to help. Sometimes it's a bit brutal getting adjusted to the college set-up.

7) Student Discipline Counselor: I expect that you know why you've been sent for. Bringing liquor into the dorm was a violation of the University rules. Were you aware of that?

Student: Yes, I am aware of that and I appreciate the fact that it was a foolish thing to do. I do not intend to try to justify myself in any way. It was childish. I can understand that such things cannot be tolerated by the University. I had an impulse to try it and I got caught. I am ready to accept the consequences.

Student Discipline Counselor:

1. All right. I'd suggest you keep up the same attitude. I don't like to jump you any more than you like to be jumped. I'll let you know what the Dean decides.
2. All right. I gather you wish to stand squarely on your own two feet in this matter. I'll let you know what the Dean decides
3. You feel, then, that the treatment is just. You'll be hearing from the Dean as soon as he has reached his decision.
4. I hope you'll recognize this is something the Dean's office must do and that we don't like it any more than you do. You'll be hearing from the Dean soon no.
5. What's the score on this now? What the devil was it that prompted you to take a try at this?

8) Counselor at Counseling Center: How do you feel about coming here, Joan? Do you feel it has been of any help to you?

Student: I think it's wonderful! I've never had a chance like this before in all my life. People are so friendly here. Oh, of course, I realize that there are others here who are just learning, too, but I just don't feel afraid any more. I think the school is to be most wholeheartedly congratulated for providing the chance for students who might otherwise go through school as wallflowers.

Counselor:

1. That's just grand, Joan. I'm glad you're getting so much out of it.

2. You'll probably simmer down a bit as it becomes old stuff to you, but it's sure fun now, isn't it?

3. Keep at it, Joan, you're on the right track.

4. I'm rather wondering whether this same feeling is carrying over into other areas of your life.

5. Feeling pretty pleased and grateful, is that it?

9) Dormitory Counselor: How are things coming along, Joe?

Dormitory Student: Okay, I guess, except for that new roomie I got stuck with. He's a heel! He thinks he knows everything -- a big shot. But I'll figure out some way to handle him, all right. And he'll know he's been handled, too. I'm not taking any guff off a peanut like that.

Dormitory Counselor:

1. You feel you must be out in front of him, that it's really important to you to be the better man, isn't that it?

2. Do you think that's a very constructive attitude to take toward him?

3. Why should this thing be so important to you?

4. You feel pretty angry with him and want to put him in his place, it that it?

5. I see what you mean. A guy like that is a real pain in the neck.

10) Guidance Counselor: All right, Ralph, what was it you wanted to talk about?

Student: What I want to do is to narrow my interests down to one or two areas or objectives which can give me a source of economic support, of financial security, and yet give me a feeling of academic achievement. It seems to me that the time has come when this immature lack of direction has got to be straightened out.

Guidance Counselor:

1. Just how far has your thinking gone in this problem?
2. You know where you want to go and it's high time you got there, is that it?
3. That's a fine goal, Ralph. Let's see what we can do about it.
4. I except that first we'll have to get a measure of your strengths and weaknesses and interests and then see how things seem to stack up.
5. Um hm, I see. You're beginning to become concerned about growing up.

Name ______________________________

Communication Procedures Inventory

Answer Sheet

Question 1.	1	2	3	4	5	(Circle one.)
Question 2.	1	2	3	4	5	
Question 3.	1	2	3	4	5	
Question 4.	1	2	3	4	5	
Question 5.	1	2	3	4	5	
Question 6.	1	2	3	4	5	
Question 7.	1	2	3	4	5	
Question 8.	1	2	3	4	5	
Question 9.	1	2	3	4	5	
Question 10.	1	2	3	4	5	

APPENDIX G

Bibliographies

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APPENDIX H

Psychological and Moral Development for Teachers: Can You Teach Old Dogs?

Sharon N. Oja
Norman A. Sprinthall

INTRODUCTION

As Sprinthall and Mosher noted in their article, programs for educational reform and "new education" have typically focused on either the pupil or new curriculum materials. Teachers, the third part of the educational triangle, have usually been viewed in static terms. Educators often speak of pupil growth and development, or of stimulating classroom materials. Yet, when it comes to teachers, there is either an attempt to make the curriculum teacher-proof, like learning to paint by the numbers, or to provide teachers with brief low-level skill training and hope for the best. Neither effort has been successful. The great national teacher-proof curriculum projects of the 60's have all faded almost totally into the obscurity of school file rooms and desk drawers, quietly gathering dust. The efforts of a brief skills-only education for in-service teachers have been episodic and equally ineffective. The results of a massive national review of in-service teacher education by Joyce, Howey and Yarger provide a discouraging and depressing account of failure.[1] The study included interview data from more than 1000 school personnel, community, congressional and state department members. Also some 2000 volumes, 600 journal articles, and major position papers were reviewed. These multiple sources of information all tend to refer to in-service teacher education with negative connotations. There are over-all feelings of skepticism, discontent, and dissatisfaction resulting in the description of the in-service teacher education effort as "weak," "impoverished," and as a "relative failure."[2]

These reactions parallel the general flavor of earlier reviews of education such as those by Getzels and Jackson,[3] Cyphert and Spaights,[4] and Biddle and Ellena.[5] This, in spite of careful documentation which indicates that there are massive numbers of personnel involved in the effort of in-service education (e.g., some one-quarter of a million, at the last count). To praphrase Winston Churchill: It can be said of teacher education that never have so many worked so hard to produce so little.

THEORY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

In our view, a major source of difficulty in this area has been the lack of coherent theory and practice for teacher education. We know that one cannot really teacher-proof materials, nor can brief skills-only training produce lasting change. On the latter point, there is ample research evidence that learning a few discrete skills, such as microteaching and/or microcounseling does not transfer to the classroom. The surface skills wash out and the teacher quickly resumes practice as usual.[6]

The lack of theory, as Shutes points out, is a prime consideration in this dismal picture.[7] Teacher education, he suggests, is guided at best by fragmented, capricious bits of folk-wisdom, unevaluated and non-cumulative experience. The result then is not surprising: Practice without theory growing first in one direction, then another, wandering aimlessly between the trivial and the cosmic, and not knowing the difference. Slogans and statements *ex cathedra* such as "Competency-Based Teacher Education" are simply current examples of a long history of atheoretical eclecticism in teacher education.

The current study is an attempt to reverse the trend and to establish a research base including a coherent theory, and systematic practice; obviously a tall order. Yet, we have discerned in the past decade a small but increasing base or beachhead for such work.

STRANDS AND CONTRIBUTIONS FOR DEVELOPMENTAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Extrapolating from our work with children and teenagers, we confronted the question: Can the framework also hold for adults? Developmental theory posits such concepts as growth through stages, qualitative change, an invariant and hierarchical sequence. What would happen if we applied these to adults? Could we conceptualize teacher growth as a dependent variable? As with children and teenagers, could we attempt to create a developmental learning environment designed to stimulate personal/professional growth or (more formally) cognitive structural change on the part of the teacher?

Cognitive development (including the ego, the conceptual, and the moral domains) is based on the presupposition that how complexly persons *think and feel* is governed by their stage of development. In its barest form then, what such a framework posits for teacher education is simply that if we wish teachers to perform more adequately, programs are needed to stimulate teachers' development to yet higher, more complex stages.

The seminal research of O. J. Harvey, Schroeder and David Hunt[8] has recently provided a key empirical and theoretical bridge connecting developmental concepts to classroom teaching. They were able to document through natural setting research that teachers who were classified at more advanced developmental stages were more effective as classroom teachers. Given the long, dreary and inconsequential research history in teacher effectiveness, this work was a clear breakthrough. Stated simply, teachers at higher stages of development functioned in the classroom at a more complex level (e.g., they were more adaptive in teaching style, flexible and tolerant). Also, such teachers were more responsive to individual differences and, most importantly, employed a variety of teaching models (e.g., lectures, small discussions, role-plays, indirect teaching strategies) and were more empathic; that is, such teachers could accurately "read" and respond to the emotions of their pupils. From a theoretical perspective this is reasonable, since at higher stages humans are capable of multiple perspective-taking. Their perceptual field is broad or (in Witkin's term) such teachers are field independent versus field dependent.[9] In sum, such teachers provide an abundant learning environment for their pupils.

While Harvey, Hunt and others have demonstrated the crucial relationships between developmental stage and teacher performance, they have not taken the next step. Can we build educational programs which will stimulate the teacher's level of development? At present, research can identify both pre-service and in-service teachers who are at various developmental levels. However, there have been no attempts to explore whether or not it is possible to change and improve the developmental stages of teachers. In one sense, this is a curious omission, since there is such an overwhelming body of research documenting both the modest psychological/ego/ moral developmental level of adults in general (including teachers) and the ineffective level of instruction in most of the classrooms of this country. Studies as far back as 1912 and as recent as 1975 indicate that, in most classrooms, teachers do 80% of the talking and use only one mode of instruction.[10] Thus, the need for change is obvious and, with the basic work of O. J. Harvey, David Hunt and others at hand, the needed theoretical framework is available.

One final theoretical point. A colleague of Hunt's, Edward Sullivan, was the first to extend the theoretical framework into broader areas.[11] Hunt, of course, was mostly concerned about stages of conceptual development, how a person thinks about educational issues, learning, knowledge, etc. Sullivan was able to demonstrate that this was one domain of developmental stage theory and that conceptual stages were related to ego stage (Loevinger) and moral-ethical stage (Kohlberg). This broadened the developmental perspective. The framework became more inclusive and comprehensive representing a variety of developmental domains: the personal, the ethical and the conceptual (and with Selman's most recent work we can add, the interpersonal). Sullivan, then, provided a most important expansion of theory by pushing it to the broader Deweyian notion of a whole person processing experience through a variety of overlapping developmental domains.

THE STUDY

As a result we decided to create an educational program for teachers, employing a developmental education format (the so-called balanced-curriculum, role-taking, disequilibrating). Also, we focused on developmental stage change of teachers as our dependent variable as measured by three different yet overlapping instruments - - the Hunt Conceptual Level Test, the Rest DIT of Moral Development, and the Loevinger Test of Ego Development.

Participants for this study were in-service elementary and secondary school teachers and other student support personnel (counselors, social workers) who were enrolled in summer school classes in the College of Education at the University of Minnesota. The experimental subjects participated in a special Developmental Education workshop offered for regular graduate credits. The control subjects were enrolled in various other education courses. The instructional staff consisted of six doctoral students and two faculty members in the Developmental Education Program.

Standardized measures of the independent variable, personal psychological development in the stages of ego, moral and conceptual growth, were administered to both experimental and comparison groups on a pretest-posttest basis. Professional/skill acquisition was measured for only the experimental group by a facilitative counseling measure similar to Gazda and Carkhuff and the Flanders indirect teaching analysis system.[12] The communication skill measure was administered at the beginning of the summer workshop in June, at the end of the summer workshop in July, and at the end of the fall practicum in December. Audio tapes of classroom teaching in May, before the summer workshop, and in December, during the fall practicum, formed the measure of indirect teaching for one sub-group of experimental teachers.

CURRICULUM OBJECTIVES

General objectives of the curriculum for the adult teachers included (1) the development of more complex, differentiated, and integrated understanding of self and others, (2) increased cognitive complexity, (3) development toward principled morality, and (4) increase in knowledge of educational psychology and increased skills in communication. The program used three instructional settings: large group didactic learning, small group laboratory learning, and fall quarter practicum application. The curriculum existed in three phases:

Phase I -	Building supportive interpersonal relationships within the small groups to facilitate developmental growth.
Phase II -	Learning the skills of facilitative teaching, indirect teaching, and individualizing instruction in addition to the content of cognitive-developmental theory.
Phase III -	Applying the skills and theory to the real classroom setting with significant on-going supervision.

The workshop in the summer concentrated on Phases I and II of the curriculum while Phase III, the ongoing supervision of the practicum, occurred during the fall quarter of the year as teachers returned to their classrooms to try out mini-units based on their newly acquired skills and theory.

The summer workshop ran from 8:30 to 12:00, four days a week for five weeks. Each day was divided into a large group session, 8:30-10:00, and a small group session, 10:30-12:00. The large group dealt mainly in didactic learning (lectures and discussions) specifically relating principles and theories of human development (Elkind, Erikson, Loevinger, Hunt, Kohlberg, Piaget and Perry) and principles of behavioral contracting to adults' personal development, social roles, and educational practice in classrooms (including individualizing instruction and mainstreaming). Small group sessions each day focused on learning and practicing facilitative communication skills and group process skills, with particular emphasis on the personal/professional identity issues of adults. Additionally, the adult teachers focused on transferring the theory and skills to the classrooms through the planning of three required mini-units to be implemented in the fall practicum. These were aimed to encourage teachers to see the multiple perspectives in their roles (e.g., as indirect teacher, as group facilitator, as supportive supervisor and as counselor within the classroom), and to experience a variety of possibilities in relating to students as well as to other adults in the educational system. The four focus points of developmental approaches to learning existed within all three phases of the curriculum. They were (1) *seminar approach with practicum experience*—the "action plus reflection" framework; (2) *significant social role-taking*—the ability to take the perspective of others; (3) *on-going supervision*; and (4) *provision for support* during times of disequilibrium in new learning.

RESULTS

The study employed three empirical measures of developmental stage, the Loevinger, the Rest, and the Hunt. Since there are no single valid measures, an overlapping assessment was employed with the three tests serving as proximate measures. The results will be presented in the following order: Loevinger, Rest and Hunt. Each is viewed as an indicator of how each person processes or makes meaning from experience by developmental level. The Loevinger largely assesses how an individual thinks about or conceptualizes about self; the Rest assesses how a person processes social-justice questions; the Hunt assesses how a person conceptualizes issues of teaching and learning.

EGO DEVELOPMENT

Table I indicates the results of independent t-tests comparing the mean ego level score of the experimental to the comparison group on both pretest and posttests. No significant differences were found on the pretest scores between the two groups.

Posttest scores indicate that the Experimental Group Mean was significantly different from the Control. Since developmental theory predicts direction for change, a one-tailed test of significance was employed. The computed posttest t was 1.70 and with 53 NDF this was significant beyond the .05 level. Inspection of the mean scores in *Table I*, however, revealed that the source of significance was probably derived more from the decrease on posttest by the Control group than an increase by the Experimentals group. In fact, the decline in posttest scoring is apparently the general expectation when employing the Loevinger with adult populations.[13] Thus, the Control group regressed in scoring (as do most adults on a pre/post basis) while the Experimental group essentially remained stable. This cannot be taken, however, as a major indicator of developmental growth. At best, it can be considered a trend. On an overall basis, the Experimental group remained at Stage 5 on the Loevinger, a highly stable adult stage of development and similar to Kohlberg's Stage 4.

TABLE I, LOEVINGER EGO DEVELOPMENT SCORES for Both a Pretest and a Posttest of Experimental vs. Control Groups.

VARIABLE:	N grp.:	SC-18 Mean:[a]	S. D.:	d. f.:	Value of t:	Probability:
Pretests --						
Experimental	30	6.867	0.681	53		n. s.[b]
Comparison	25	6.720	0.678			
Posttests --						
Experimental	30	6.900	0.662	53	1.70	.01 p .05[c]
Comparison	25	6.560	0.821			

WHERE:

[a] = Loevinger's SC-18 ego level scores have been transformed into a 1-10 interval value according to the following convention:

Ego level:	1	2	Δ	Δ3	3	3/4	4	4/5	5	6
Interval value:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

[b] = Since the pretesting is designed to assess whether or not the two groups are derived from the same population, a two-tailed test of probability is appropriate, and was used.

[c] = Since the posttesting is designed to assess whether the Experimental group is higher in score than the Control (or Comparison) group and, so, involves testing a prediction of direction, a one-tailed test of probability is appropriate, and was used.

MORAL/ETHICAL DEVELOPMENT

The Defining Issues Test from Rest,[14] attempts to assess what people see as crucial moral issues in a situation by presenting subjects with a moral dilemma and a list of definitions of the major issues involved. In this study for each of three stories (dilemmas), subjects evaluated a set of twelve issues and were asked to rate how important

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each issue is in deciding what ought to be done, and to rank their choices of the four most important issues. Since each issue statement represents a moral judgment stage, a subject's choices of the most important issues over a number of moral dilemmas are taken as a measure of his/her grasp of different stages of moral reasoning. The P (Principled Thinking) score is the sum of the subject's Stage 5A, 5B, and 6 usage scores in Kohlbergian terms.

Table II indicates that there was no significant difference between the two groups on the DIT pretest. Both groups can be considered as being drawn from the same population of adult teachers. The table also indicates that the two groups were statistically significantly different on posttest scores (18.3 versus 14.9), a difference favoring the Experimentals.

TABLE II. REST "PRINCIPLED MORAL THOUGHT" SCORES (Percent & Raw) (from the Defining Issues Test (or Both a Pretest & a Posttest of Experimental vs. Control Groups.[a]

VARIABLE:	N_{grp}:	DIT-3 Means -- Raw:[b]	Percent:[b]	S. D.:	d. f.:	Value of t:	Prob.:
Pretests --							
Experimental	27	16.33	56.3%	4.56	46	1.81	n. s.[c]
Comparison	21	13.43	46.3%	6.59			
Posttests --							
Experimental	27	18.295	63.1%	0.959	46	2.06	0.02[d]
Comparison	21	14.952	51.5%	1.372			

WHERE:

[a] : In this study a three-story/dilemma form of Rest's DIT was used.

[b] : In order to transfer from a raw score to a percent score, simply divide the raw score by the constant 29.

[c] : Since the pretesting is designed to assess whether or not the two groups are derived from the same population, a two-tailed test of probability is appropriate, and was used.

[d] : Since the posttesting is designed to assess whether the Experimental group is higher in score than the Control (or Comparison) group and, so, involves testing a prediction of direction, a one-tailed test of probability is appropriate, and was used.

The results indicate that experimental teachers (N = 27) gained significantly pre to post in their use of principled moral thinking. The experimental teachers increased their average score on the DIT-3 test from 56.3% to 63.1%, which represents a percentage increase significant at P = .018 (two-tailed test). This compares favorably with Bernier's results with in-service teachers (N = 16) which showed an increase from 56.8% to 65.8% ($p < .01$, two-tailed).[15]

The comparison subjects (N = 21) showed no significant shift on the DIT-3 in this study.

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Conceptual Level (CL) is a measure of cognitive complexity as well as learning style according to Hunt.[16] Scores range from 0 to 3 and a higher score indicates more complexity in processing information, greater interpersonal maturity, and a learning style requiring less structure. The test is a six item paragraph completion test, similar in format to the Loevinger.

The results are presented in *Table III* and indicate that the Experimental and Comparison groups were not significantly different in mean pretest scores. Comparison on the posttest, however, revealed a statistically significant difference (p = .013), indicating the posttest experimental mean CL score was significantly higher than that of the Comparison group.

TABLE III. HUNT CONCEPTUAL LEVEL TEST SCORES (Raw Score Means) for Both a Pretest and a Posttest of an Experimental Group vs. a Control Group: Data from Administrations of Hunt's Paragraph Completion Test of Conceptual Level.

VARIABLE:	N_{grp}:	MEANS:[a]	S. D.:	d. f.:	Value of t:	Prob.:
Pretests --						
Experimental	31	1.855	0.290	52	---	n. s.[b]
Comparison	23	1.696	0.372			
Posttests --						
Experimental	31	2.010	0.375	52	2.29	0.013[c]
Comparison	23	1.787	0.322			

WHERE:

[a] = Hunt's Paragraph Completion Test of Conceptual Level generates scores that can range from 0 to 3. Scores of 1, 2 or 3 on this test may be interpreted as indicating the following conceptual levels:

Score of 1 = Categorical judgments, stereotyped thought. Other directed; accepts single rules.

Score of 2 = Self delineation, awareness of alternatives, & awareness of emotions.

Score of 3 = Abstract internal principles, awareness of multiple viewpoints.

[b] = Since the pretesting is designed to assess whether or not the two groups are derived from the same population, a two-tailed test of probability is appropriate, and was used.

[c] = Since the posttesting is designed to assess whether the Experimental group is higher in score than the Control (or Comparison) group and, so, involves testing a prediction of direction, a one-tailed test of probability is appropriate, and was used.

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The three empirical estimates of stage growth indicate that the workshop experience apparently stimulated some developmental change, yet the results were not completely consistent. On the estimates of ethical reasoning and conceptual thought, the workshop teachers achieved scores which were statistically different from their colleagues in regular summer school courses. On the other hand, in terms of their general stage of ego development, there was apparently no immediate shift. If the Loevinger is viewed as the most general measure of adult personality (which the theorist does in fact claim), then the workshop may not have been either long enough nor intense enough to engender a major stage shift from Stage 4 to 5. As Mosher's paper details, such a shift apparently requires a major change in the entire educational environment, including how the school as a system is organized.

The pattern of interaction between teacher and pupil, teacher and teacher, and teacher and administrator must shift to the level of general democratic principles or so-called "just communities." The fact that our workshop did not go beyond the classroom as it currently exists may account for the lack of over-all change. Self-contained classrooms traditionally clustered may represent a ceiling (or lid) on the amount of developmental change that is possible. The upward shift in ethical and conceptual thinking would theoretically improve the learning atmospheres in somewhat conventional classrooms. Teachers, as well as participant observers, reported this to be the case. The workshop teachers tended to become less dictatorial and arbitrary, on one hand, and more indirect and empathic, on the other.

Table IV presents the results of the workshop teachers' ability to accurately identify and respond to human emotions over the period of the program. *Table V* reports the available data on one sub-group of workshop teachers who provided pre-posttest tapes of their actual classroom teaching. This indicates that they improved in their ability to employ the dimensions of indirect teaching, which Flanders' research has documented as a more effective mode than the traditional directive approach to teaching.[17] Thus, in *Table V*, the data indicate that the elementary teachers shifted from 59% direct instruction (or 41% indirect) to 43% direct (or 57% indirect). This is a significant shift. Extensive research by Flanders and his associates has shown that teachers talk about 60% of the time in classrooms, a finding incidentally that has remained almost constant since studies of the phenomena began in 1912, as we noted earlier.

TABLE IV. REFLECTION OF FEELING SCORES and CORRELATED T-TEST VALUES for Only the Experimental Group (N= 32).

VARIABLE:	N_{grp}:	MEANS:[a]	S. D.:	d. f.:	Value of t:	Prob.:
Administrations, Time of Exp. Grp.[b]						
T_1 (first)	32	2.003	0.601	31	-7.66	.001[c]
T_2 (second)	32	2.691	0.482			
T_1 (first)	32	2.003	0.601	31	-5.75	.001[c]
T_3 (third)	32	2.596	0.629			
T_2 (second)	32	2.691	0.482	31	1.29	0.208
T_3 (third)	32	2.596	0.629			

WHERE:

[a] = The workshop teachers' ability to accurately identify and respond to human emotions (over the period of the program) were rated on a 1-5 scale, on which the scale-points meant the following --

Score of 1 = Total lack of awareness of emotions;
Score of 2 = Awareness, but slight distortion of feelings;
Score of 3 = Accurate identification & response to feelings;
Score of 4 = Goes beyond the stated content & feelings that are expressed (e.g., Leads);
Score of 5 = Goes well beyond expressed feelings (e.g., Suggests major new awareness to subject).

[b] = The "Times of Administration" for the instrument that generated the Reflection of Feeling scores are defined as follows --

T_1 (first) = Beginning of the Summer Workshop.
T_2 (second) = Conclusion of the Summer Workshop.
T_3 (third) = Conclusion of the follow-up Fall Practicum.

[c] = Since the correlated t-Test is for the same group, with only time of administration varied, and the intent is to assess whether or not change has taken place within the group on the measure used, a two-tailed test of probability is appropriate, and was used.

TABLE V. INDIRECT TEACHING LEVELS and CORRELATED T-TEST VALUES for a Sub-Sample of the Experimental Group Who Provided Pretest/Posttest Tapes of Their Classroom Teaching.

VARIABLE:	N_{grp}:	MEANS:[a]	S. D.:	d. f.:	Value of t:	Prob.:[b]
Pretests --	10	0.412	0.195	09	-3.27	less than 0.01
Posttests --	10	0.573				

WHERE:

[a] = Reported Means are for the Indirect Ratio, which is calaculated from data using the Flanders categories. The Indirect Ratio is itself calculated by adding Flanders' categories 1 through 4 and, then, dividing that sum by the sum of the Flanders categories 1 through 7.

[b] = Since the correlated t-Test is for the same group (or, more precisely, the same sub-group of the total Experimental Group), with essentially time of teaching behavior varied, and the intent is to assess whether or not change across that time period on the measure used has taken place, a two-tailed test of probability is appropriate, and was used.

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Other, more clinically oriented assessments of the program tended to confirm the empirical findings. The teachers rated the program highly in self-report questionnaires, with positive ratings between 5 and 6 on a 7-point scale. They also indicated in their weekly journals their growing confidence and success in implementing some of the new skills into their classroom. We had asked them to implement "mini-units" in peer counseling, cross-age teaching and individualizing instruction as a method to increase their repertoire of teaching skills. They were not always successful, but their discussion of both success and failure indicated a broader perception of their pupils and an increase in their own self-analytic skills.

IMPLICATIONS

As noted at the outset of this article, we have deliberately selected a most difficult and complex issue for a research investigation. Thus, it is not surprising that the first set of results are somewhat inconclusive. Our earlier studies with children and teenagers were similarly promising, yet, far from definitive. The present study has a number of obvious implications. Creating effective developmental experiences for adults is substantially more complex than for children and adolescents. In one sense, this is easy to understand. Adults tend to stabilize into consistent and somewhat impervious stages. Somewhat quaintly, William James referred to this as "old fogeyism;"[18] namely, the tendency for adults to avoid significant change, to process new experience in familiar terms, and to avoid significantly new perceptions. In the specific case of adults as teachers, we've already noted the remarkable consistency of teaching style, not only within, but across generations. A recent study of educational change by the Rand Corporation reviewed a decade of innovative programs. There was almost no transfer. As soon as the funds were withdrawn, business as usual returned. "It was a universal experience of these projects that, regardless of their degree of success, they were studiously ignored by their colleagues–(even if) the school may have been a virtual Walden III . . . ."[19]

However, we do not wish to plead that the problems are too great and, therefore, we should be excused from further effort. Instead, our view is that (in a major sense) we need to build new programs through a gradual process of action and reflection. This initial study does provide some foundation. Teachers can learn theory and skills which, at least, partially impact their stage of development. It may be that the next step is to work more comprehensively on applications to their own classrooms. Possibly, this could include the creation of more democratic classrooms (in the Dewey sense). It may be unrealistic to foresee entire school systems opting a la Mosher for "just high schools." Yet, individual teachers, class by class, may be able to restructure their own learning environments to promote and stimulate pupil growth.

At this point, we simply don't know either what is possible or what is requisite to provide interactive learning environments for both teachers and pupils. A developmental framework does indicate that such educational problems cannot be solved in isolation. Consecutiveness and interaction are required. Pupils teachers, and curriculum materials are equal participants in either educational growth or stalemate.

Our studies with children and teenagers indicate that growth can occur under conditions of significant experience and careful reflection. Gradually inducing *more* complex role-taking and *more* self reflection form the parameters of developmental education. The present study, while raising many unanswered questions, does support the possibility that what is true for pupil growth may be true for adults as well. In the long run, then, further study in this area may uncover and illuminate theory and practice for adult professional growth and development.

The concept of cognitive structural change, the process through which humans move from the less complex to the more complex in a variety of developmental domains, remains a compelling framework for our work. The classic dictum in education states, "As is the teacher so is the school." Perhaps in the future we can say, "As the teacher becomes, so the schools grow."

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